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CHAIN STORES

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CHAIN STORES

THEIR MANAGEMENT AND OPERATION

BY

WALTER S. HAYWARD, A. M.

Author of "The Retail Handbook"

AND

PERCIVAL WHITE

Research Engineering, Author of "Market Analysis, Its Principles and Methods"

With chapters by

JOHN S. FLEEK, M. B. A.

AND

H. MAC INTYRE

SECOND EDITION

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PREFACE TO SECOND EDITION

In the three years which have elapsed since this volume was first published, the chain store method of operation has made phenomenal increases. Not only has the number of store units greatly increased, but, even more significant, new fields of retailing, formerly regarded as unsuited for chain exploitation, have been successfully entered.

Retail distribution is now undergoing profound changes. It is the opinion of many authorities that mass selling is the remedy for excessive costs of distribution, just as mass production was applied successfully to the reduction of manufacturing costs. The mail-order house, the department store, and the chain store system are the forms of retailing which merchandise on a quantity basis. While the first two methods are showing a steady growth, it is the chain system which is revolutionizing retail distribution.

If the small independent store is to survive, even making allowance for the advantages which it possesses in the personal supervision of store activities and the personal contact with customers, it is widely believed that some method of procuring the benefits of mass selling must be obtained.

The department store has not ordinarily been considered as a competitor of chain systems, but no less an authority than E. A. Filene, president of Wm. Filene's Sons Company, of Boston, Mass., predicts that department stores must adopt chain methods of mass selling if they are to maintain their position of dominance. He points to the growing success of chains in the dry goods and department store field, and to the significance of the purchase by S. S. Kresge of several large department stores with the intention of operating them according to chain store principles.

The authors have found it no little problem to keep pace with the progress of the chain store movement. But they have attempted, in this edition, to bring up to date the facts and the figures of this line of business, as well as substantially to add to the discussion of chain store practice.

Walter S. Hayward.
Percival White.

PREFACE TO FIRST EDITION

The purpose of this book is to set forth the principles of chain store operation, organization, management, and control. It is intended not only for the use of the executive at chain store headquarters, but it is also particularly addressed to the branch store manager and his assistants. Furthermore, it is hoped that the book will prove stimulating to independent retailers and to others who are interested in the possibilities offered by the chain store movement.

In the opinion of the authors, this movement is characteristic of all that is best in tendencies towards combination and scientific control. It is thoroughly American. It stands for scientific management as applied to the great function of retail merchandising.

Although this movement is still in its infancy, the chain store is probably the most highly developed exemplar of modern distribution methods.

The first chapter is offered as a brief summary of findings, the intention being to give the reader a perspective of the subject before he comes to the more specific and detailed examination of the various phases of the problem.

As a further means of clarifying the reader's ideas, an outline is placed at the head of each chapter, setting forth its main points in topical form. It is hoped that these outlines will prove valuable for anyone desirous of obtaining in the most direct fashion a comprehensive knowledge of the subject.

Without the assistance of many friends it would have been impossible to complete this work. In addition to those mentioned in the text, grateful acknowledgment is made to the following for their assistance:

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WALTER S. HAYWARD.
PERCIVAL WHITE.

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CHAPTER I

THE PRINCIPLES OF CHAIN STORE OPERATION

Outline

Chain store principles:
1. Physical aspects of store location and construction.
2. Methods of operation.
3. Men.
4. System of control and coordination.

Physical aspects:
1. Locate:
   (*a*) According to analysis of product
   (*b*) According to analysis of traffic.
2. Standardize:
   (*a*) Appearance of store:
      (1) Store front.
      (2) Size.
      (3) Stock.
      (4) Window trims.

Methods:
1. Purchase:
   (*a*) At headquarters.
   (*b*) Direct from manufacturer.
   (*c*) For cash.
   (*d*) Enough and no more.
2. The warehouse:
   (*a*) Keep adequate and fresh supply of stock.
   (*b*) Fill orders with speed and accuracy from well-arranged stock.
   (*c*) Keep warehouse overhead down by standardization of method.
3. Sales methods:
   (*a*) Suit product to wants of community:
      (1) Carry only standard sizes.
      (2) Avoid style articles.
   (*b*) Mark prices in accordance with:
      (1) Cost to chain.
      (2) Overhead expense.
      (3) Sales expense.
      (4) Necessary profit.

(*c*) Keep every line turning at a profit.

4. Eliminate unnecessary expenses:
   (*a*) Conduct business on cash basis.
   (*b*) Charge extra for deliveries.
5. Take advantage of benefits of publicity:
   (*a*) Display.
   (*b*) Advertising.

Men:

1. Choose men carefully:
   (*a*) Who have interest in work.
   (*b*) Who show signs of promise.
2. Train men carefully:
   (*a*) Start at bottom and work up.
3. Pay personnel adequately:
   (*a*) By some form of bonus on sales, profits, etc.
4. Promote men on merit alone.
5. Maintain morale:
   (*a*) By discipline.
   (*b*) By infusing spirit of goodwill.

Control and coordination:

1. Keep careful and complete records:
   (*a*) Of warehousing and purchasing.
   (*b*) Of overhead expenses.
   (*c*) Of independent store statistics.

CHAPTER I

THE PRINCIPLES OF CHAIN STORE OPERATION

What is a chain store? This term is generally applied to a group of two or more retail stores, dealing in the same line of goods, and under the same central management. Each store, although a separate unit, has certain features in common with the rest, whether in purchasing, merchandising, or accounting. The degree of independence possessed by the individual stores varies from almost complete independence, as in some dry goods chains, to the closest interdependence, where the manager is hardly more than a head clerk.

How does a branch house differ from the chain store? In many cases this is hard to define, since the ordinary branch store is in reality a chain store. The term "branch" is frequently applied to the several links of a manufacturer's chain. An independent retailer with two or three stores commonly calls them "branches," although they are in reality members of a chain.

An agency is not a chain store, although frequently this term is applied to such organizations as the United Drug Company's agencies. A "Rexall" store, it is true, handles the manufactured products of the United Drug Company, but there is no executive control. The individual agency is an entity in itself and is self-governing. No chain store can ever run counter to the policy of the organization to which it belongs.

In discussing the general principles on which chain stores are conducted, it is difficult to include only methods and policies of unique application. Many of these principles can be applied equally well to an independent retailer. In the last analysis, a chain is nothing more than a collection of retail stores dealing in the same products, guided by the same policies, profiting by the same economies, and correcting the same mistakes.

The principles of chain store operation may be divided into four sections, the first dealing with conditions already existing,

the second with merchandising policies, the third with chain personnel, and the fourth with the control of chain activities through records and statistics and the interpretation and application of these data.

The Physical Aspects.—Under this first heading come all those factors which are outside the power of the chain to create but by which it can profit if it will take advantage of them. Of all the principles involved, these are perhaps the most fundamental, because they deal with unalterable facts. The correct location of a store, for example, is always an essential factor. Again, there is a size for a store which is just right to accommodate its traffic and trade. Anything larger would be waste; anything smaller would be inefficient.

These physical aspects are known conditions, possible to estimate and to forecast. The man who first put them to practical use, George J. Whelan, became a millionnaire. The example of success is irresistible. Today, all scientifically managed chains realize that the physical aspects of retailing must be reckoned with. If no use is made of location, then some other method, notably advertising, must be used to attract trade.

There are three steps involved in the problem of locating a store:

1. Analyze the product.
2. Analyze the locality.
3. Analyze the traffic.

There is a proper site for the store and it can be found by using this method. If the products to be sold are mainly convenience goods, that is, goods which are the same wherever purchased, such as cigarettes, groceries, notions, etc., the site should be on the stream of traffic. If the products are "shopping lines," or if there is something in the article or the service which will induce people to leave their accustomed path to purchase, the store may be away from usual traffic. But, in this event, it must resort to publicity and advertising to acquaint people with what it has to offer.

Next, analyze the locality. Who are to be your neighbors? What do they sell? A five-and-ten-cent store can be found close to the department store—like the pilot fish by the shark. Which side of the street is the shady side? Women prefer it.

Last of all, analyze the traffic. Note the number of passers-by and the direction in which they are going. Note the hours at which this traffic is heaviest and the relative number of women and of men of which it is composed. Last of all, note the character of the traffic. Is it mainly composed of men and women going to and from work? Of shoppers? Of commuters? What is their rank and station? It is the buying power of the traffic which must be determined.

Thus, the first principle of chain store operation is to locate the member stores in relation to the nature of the products to be sold, the character of the locality, and a careful analysis of the traffic. There is a right place—find it.

The second principle is to suit the store itself to the product, the locality, and the traffic.

Take advantage of the principles of display. Design a store front in harmony with the character of the organization and the localities in which it sells. Make the exterior of the store combine with the location to act as a drawing attraction for the public. Make the interior of the store large enough to utilize every inch of working space, and no larger. Arrange the stock so that it appears at its best. Furthermore, arrange it so as to make the most of the points of sales vantage. Traffic, in a store as well as outside, follows certain channels. And when the "one best way" for arranging a store has been determined, the same plan can usually be used as a model throughout the chain.

The window display is one of the most important points in the physical appearance of the member store. More people buy as a result of what they see than for any other reason. Good window displays and good table displays sell goods. And, last of all, keep stores neat and attractive. This will create favorable notice.

The essence of this part of chain operation is to take advantage, as far as possible, of things as they are, and of people as they are. This is a study in human nature and psychology. Choose the proper location and your customers will come to you.

Merchandising Policies.—The purpose of all chain store policies is to sell goods at a profit. As all other retailers are in business with this same purpose in mind, it follows that the most efficient will be the most successful. How is this efficiency to be

obtained? The independent retailer makes a success by personal supervision and by personal service. He can vary his policy to suit his customer. But the chain is more impersonal. Its policies, like its store fronts, must be standardized. And this principle pervades the whole chain structure. Appearance, arrangement of stock, price, wages, everything is standardized. Instead of personal service, there is standard practice. Human nature cannot be standardized, but almost everything else can.

The merchandising policies of a retail chain are chiefly confined to obtaining products of the highest quality at the lowest price, and selling as large an amount of them as possible at the lowest expense and the largest profit consistent with rapid turnover.

Purchasing.—As far as possible, all buying for the chain should be done at headquarters. There are several reasons for this. In the first place, the larger the purchase the greater the quantity discount. In the second place, the purchasing agent of the chain can buy direct, and in this way save the jobbers' discount as well as obtain the quantity discount. Although at one time manufacturers were reluctant to accede to this policy, there is less objection offered at present.

The purchasing agent of the chain, if he is not located or directly represented at the market, should go where the article he wishes to buy is, and offer cash for it. If the manufacturer fears it will be impossible to make the goods to retail at the price at which the chain wishes to sell them, the purchasing agent may be able to show the manufacturer how it can be done. The question of how much to buy is a problem facing all purchasing agents, and with the chain is scientifically determined by records, as explained later.

The principles of chain store purchasing may be summed up under four headings:

1. All purchasing should be done through headquarters.
2. Buy as directly as possible, preferably from the source.
3. Pay cash.
4. Do not overload.

Overloading, and other evils, will be minimized by proper executive control, and the coordination between departments.

Warehousing.—In an effort to simplify distribution, the majority of chain stores have taken upon themselves the warehousing function. That is, they store all goods purchased and delivered until they are requisitioned by the member stores. This reduces freight charges, and gives assurance that goods will be available when needed.

The warehouse must be located with respect, first, to the routes by which articles are received, and, second, to the position of the member stores. If the jobber's profit is to be saved, this is exceedingly important.

The main principles of warehouse management are three:

1. Maintain an adequate and fresh supply of stock. On this point depends the efficiency of distribution to member stores. Articles listed as being in stock must actually be in stock. Of course, there will be unavoidable cases where goods will get out of stock, but these must be kept at a minimum.

2. Orders from member stores must be filled with speed and accuracy. If there is any lapse in the rapidity of distribution, lost sales will result.

3. Expenses must be kept down. The expense of warehousing is taken care of in the central organization, and it forms a part of the general overhead expenditures. That is, each store must bear a certain percentage of this cost of storing and distributing goods.

All stock in warehouses should be arranged logically with consideration to the frequency with which it must be moved and the actual labor of moving. Heavy goods, for example, should be nearest the loading point. A regular position for each article of merchandise helps in speed of handling, and eliminates mistakes. By placing old goods in front, the stock can constantly be kept fresh. In the warehouse, as in the store, the layout may advantageously be standardized.

Sales.—Study the sales records and take advantage of the information they have to offer. No other documents are so valuable or so easy to read. Analyze the daily sales. See how sales for Fridays and Saturdays compare with those of other days. Many chains find that their sales are almost double on these days and they make preparation accordingly. Study also the influence of weather on the volume of trade. Learn how to

distribute the seasonal rush over a period of time in order that no sales may be lost through overcrowding.

Minimize sales resistance by giving the public what the public wants. Sales resistance eats up profits. Therefore, study the product from the sales angle. Is it in demand? Is there another product which the public prefers?

A chain organization, because of its impersonal character, and the nature of its organization, should stock only standard goods. Odd sizes, unknown brands, style goods, are all too much of a risk, regardless of the amount of the profit. The wise chain store executive always remembers that it is not the amount of the profit but the rapidity of the turnover which counts in the long run. And he, therefore, limits the number of lines offered to the public. He limits these, furthermore, according to the desires of the public. Where possible, a chain deals in packaged goods. Few successful chains deal in bulk products. The selling expense is too high.

The chain store usually caters to the majority of its customers and lets the few who wish special services or special products go elsewhere. The loss of a few customers will be more than made up by the increased efficiency in the management of the store and the ability to satisfy the wants of the great bulk of the customers.

Should a chain store manufacture and sell its own private brands? So many of them follow this policy that the idea has almost become closely connected with chain store operation. No set rule on this point can be laid down.

The arguments in favor of private brands can be reduced to three. First, the chain can make an extra profit, since it obtains a manufacturing profit as well as the jobbing and the selling profits. Second, the private brand is often of immense advertising value. Third, private brands give the chain a source of supply independent of any manufacturers. Against this it can be argued that the public as a whole will ask for nationally advertised goods. The reply of the chains is to stock the nationally advertised goods and allow their own goods to compete on a quantity and price basis.

Pricing and Turnover.—The retail price should be uniform in all stores, except, perhaps, for a difference justified by additional

freight rates. This principle is almost self-evident. It would be disastrous to the chain if a customer were to find that at store No. 10 prices were different from those at No. 15. The price of goods should be fixed, when possible, by marking up the value a certain percentage over cost. This mark-up will vary with the nature of the product and the competition. Price cutting is always dangerous. It instils doubt in the mind of the customer as to the genuine values offered by the store, and it makes it more difficult to sell the product later at the normal price.

The larger the turnover the less profit it is necessary to make on each sale in order to show satisfactory results. That is, volume of sales reduces overhead and increases profits. Turnover of merchandise is increased by increasing sales, while the stock remains stationary or increases less rapidly.

But volume of turnover is not sufficient. There is one other element. Keep every line turning. Do not stock lines that will not sell. If some line is in stock which will not move, try to shift it to some store where it will. Such a store can usually be found in a chain of any size. If the stock of the article is too large for such methods, or if there is no such store to be found, reduce the price and sell the goods, even at a loss.

The chief merchandising appeal of the average chain is price. A low price is secured by efficient purchasing, low overhead, and large turnover. The first two yield in importance to the last. Also, as chains grow, and their goodwill increases, a reputation for quality and service makes as strong an appeal as price.

Expense and Profits.—Each store in a chain will show the same amount approximately for expense as its independent competitor, less the economies effected by increased turnover, and the elimination of credit accounts and deliveries. When sales are large, the overhead goes down, because the turnover has increased. By increasing the average sale, profits are increased also, due to decreased selling expenses.

Profits come with standardization of method. Generally, overhead is larger in small chains and smaller in large chains because of this very factor of standardization. Chain standards and practices are evolved slowly by experience. A new chain cannot hope to accomplish in a few months what normally takes many years.

Generally speaking, chain stores find it the best policy to do business for cash. This eliminates bad debts and simplifies accounting practice. In almost every case where credit has been eliminated, the result has been increased net profits for the organization.

The question of deliveries is harder to settle. Some chains deliver on payment of a certain amount extra, sufficient to cover delivery charges.

Watch the individual stores. Ascertain the reasons why certain of them pay well month after month. The lessons learned in this way can be applied with benefit to those which do not pay well.

Every store should earn a profit, unless there is some strong reason, such as competition, which makes it impossible. A new store will take a certain length of time to become established. If an old store shows consistent losses, and no other reason can be found except lack of adequate volume of sales, this store should be closed and a new one started in some better favored location. The wise chain executive knows how to take a loss as well as make profits. Mistakes are made in spite of the highest degree of standardization. It is his business to see that these mistakes occur as seldom as possible.

Keep expenses down. Establish percentages, based on records, which can be applied to all member stores. Investigate any store the itemized expenses of which exceed the allowed percentage. By daily reports, see that expenses are reduced to a minimum, keep every line of goods turning at a profit, and profits for the entire organization should be forthcoming.

Advertising.—Every retailer must let the public know where he is located and what he has to offer. This can be done in one of two ways. The first is to establish the business where the traffic will pass, and to display the goods in the windows so that all who pass may see. The second is what is technically known as advertising, that is, giving the people the same information through the medium of magazines, newspapers, theater programs, etc. All chains use the first method to a greater or less extent. Few chains have used the latter method in the past, more are using it now, and the probability is that in the future the majority of chains will use paid space in certain media of publicity.

The type of advertising done by the chain depends on:

1. The size of the chain.
2. The type of product or products sold.
3. The location of the store.

The larger the chain the better use it can make of advertising. The more elastic the demand for the products sold the more stimulus can be given to sales by advertising. The type of advertising necessary depends a great deal upon the location of the store. Stores out of the line of traffic must do more advertising to attract trade.

Advertising should be initiated at headquarters as far as possible, although local conditions may make special advertising necessary. In local or semi-local chains, advertising can be standardized. In larger chains, allowance will be made for local, sectional, climatic differences, etc.

Few chains can advertise nationally with profit. But few chains can afford not to undertake some form of local advertising.

Personnel.—Are methods or men more important in chain store operation? This question has long been argued and seems no nearer settlement than before. The methods are necessary, but the men to carry them out are even more important. No matter how well standardized the procedure and the policy of a chain may be, it will not operate profitably unless there is a coordinating personal influence which binds the whole together, making it work in harmony.

Like the great railway magnates of the past century who virtually created opportunity out of what they saw, the pioneer chain executives have built up vast retailing enterprises against the strongest competition. They built the machine, but, as with the railways, they had to have men to run the engines. The chain store locomotives are the local store managers. From this local store there is a direct line to the central office which must be kept clear. Merchandise must go forward, daily reports must come back. The district manager sits at his desk like a train despatcher signaling a clear road for the trains in his district.

The function of each man in a chain store organization should be clearly defined, from the chief executive down to the humblest clerk. And each member of the organization must feel an

interest in his work. How shall this interest be created? By giving each member a monetary profit in the operations of the concern, and making this profit commensurate with the work he himself does. Even the clerk will sell more goods if he or she receives extra profit for so doing.

It pays the chain to employ brains, even at a high price. The executive, the buyer, the window trimmer, the accountant, all are experts in their line, and worthy of their hire.

Training and Promotion.—Choosing the right man in the beginning saves much trouble. The chain store's employment department should pick and choose carefully only those men and women whom it considers as possessing the requisite characteristics for success in the organization.

It will pay the company to train the clerk before actually putting him behind the counter. He should be taught the standardized sales policies and methods of the chain, the nature of the product he is selling, the arrangement of the stock in the store, the habit of being courteous to customers under all conditions, etc. This preliminary training will result in more sales for the company and a larger bonus for the clerk.

Start all men at the bottom and let them work up. Do not look outside the organization to fill executive positions. There should be plenty of good executive material under training at the moment, possessing the great advantage of a thorough knowledge of the chain and its ways. Avoid labor turnover. If men are anxious to leave the employ of the chain, there must be something wrong. A concern that makes adequate allowance for the store cat but starves the store manager will find in the long run that its economy has been ill-directed.

Promotions should take place mainly on merit. Length of service is seldom a substitute for ability.

Morale.—The chain organization is held together by morale. Morale is a combination of discipline and teamwork, which carries out methods and even betters them. A proper system of morale makes every individual in the organization morally and financially responsible for the duties of his position.

The higher the morale the less necessity for policing. Chains should keep careful watch on all activities of their personnel, but the best safeguard for it is the morale of the organization.

Morale creates teamwork and cooperation. It makes it easier to coordinate the various functions of the business. It fuses the sales activity and creates goodwill towards the management among the employees.

Morale should be inspirational and instructive, without cheapening the effect by using the style of language so frequently encountered in sales bulletins. Every man likes encouragement and it costs little to give it to him. Every man works better when he is interested in his work. Make him interested. Let him know he will receive a bonus for his sales efforts. Let him know that what he does is appreciated.

It is not laid down as a principle that a chain should publish a house organ, but it is laid down that there should be some established method of publicity by which the central office can let the member stores know what is going on both at headquarters and among the other stores. The larger organizations frequently publish house organs as a way to solve the difficulty. Smaller concerns send out sales bulletins and letters. In local chains, the owner can pay a daily visit, or keep in touch by telephone.

In handling the personnel, the problem resolves itself into one of training and choosing men of the type which can take charge of a retail store and operate it by routine methods, with partial supervision. It offers a large field for the great number of men who must always work under someone else's guidance. Choose your men carefully, train them properly, and keep up the level of the morale.

Control.—All the manifold activities of the chain can be controlled only by means of records. Records are a necessity in every chain. By them the purchasing agent buys goods to sell through retail stores and estimates the quantities necessary to keep on hand in the warehouse. By records, the sales manager keeps track of the sales in various stores and can tell at a glance which stores are doing well and which are falling behind. By records, the auditor tells whether overhead expenses are too high. Lastly, by records the executive control is exercised.

The average small retail store keeps few accounts, because the facts are supposedly contained in the owner's head. But all the necessary information in the chain is tabulated. It under-

goes a regular digestive process until it is finally served up to the chief executive in the form of percentages and profits.

The records of the chain are among its most valuable possessions. Extending back over a series of years, they contain in essence the results of past experience. By looking back, the chain can tell approximately what to expect in every line and phase of its activity. Should it plan to start another store, the records should tell what a store in such a location should earn. When sales are reported each month, the sales manager can see whether the amount is less than it was a year ago at the same time, or more.

All chain stores should keep a continual, automatic inventory of stock on hand in warehouses, and in some cases in each store. Adequate turnover of all lines can be controlled in no other way.

Records fall into three main divisions:

1. Warehousing and purchasing records.
2. Accounting records, overhead, salaries, etc.
3. Records of individual retail stores.

Taken collectively, they form the basis of the chain's operation, and the person in authority knows daily exactly where his company stands in every detail. Thus, the principle follows that the chain should have records so complete in every detail as to allow the executive at any time to ascertain the exact status of any store in the chain, any warehouse, any manager's record, and all overhead expenses.

The Principles of Growth.—Everything previously discussed leads us to this point: A successful chain grows larger. It adds more links; it takes in more territory.

Ordinarily, a chain should expand naturally by utilizing the profits made in old stores to start new ones. The great majority of chains have been financed in this way, and this is without doubt the soundest method.

But a chain can also expand by absorbing other chains and by adding them to its organization.

Lastly, a chain can borrow money and start a number of retail links at one time. This is the most hazardous method, and should be carefully investigated before being attempted.

Chains grow not only as their financial resources expand, but also as their trained personnel grows larger. New stores must be opened for new potential store managers, as they become trained in the methods and policies of the organization.

Chains are found chiefly in congested centers of population, and they occupy this territory principally because the physical advantages are greater. The traffic being heavier, the volume of trade per store is greater. When urban locations are taken up, those chains the member stores of which require a minimum of population for successful operation extend their activities to the suburbs. A grocery store, for example, can operate in a population of 10,000 successfully. (There are some chains, of course, which purposely confine themselves to the smaller towns.)

Watch the normal growth of population if it is wished to extend the program. Natural causes, or unusual stimulus to growth, make new sites continually available. If one chain does not take advantage of this, another one will.

Conclusions.—Out of the mass of specific principles for chain store operation, two fundamentals emerge, one having to do primarily with methods, the other having to do primarily with men. In other words, the fundamentals are those of standardization and of coordination. Chain store practice should be standardized as far as possible. The chain store personnel should coordinate effort and practice.

All other principles must be connected one with another so as to make the process of operation smooth. The major part of this book is devoted to showing how methods and practice may be standardized and how all activities may be united into a smoothly functioning organization through the mechanism of records. Records are always a means; never an end. The chain does not exist to make records, but to use them. The routine of chain store operation merely supplies the necessary cogs which will make the whole function smoothly and in unison.

CHAPTER II

THE CHAIN STORE FIELD

Outline

Classification of chain stores:
1. Geographical.
2. According to policy.
3. Type of organization.
4. According to product sold.

Geographical:
1. National chains:
   (*a*) Comparatively few.
   (*b*) Follow lines of population.
2. Sectional:
   (*a*) Larger number.
3. Local chains:
   (*a*) By far the greatest in number.

Operating policy:
1. Saving in price by cutting out:
   (*a*) Credit.
   (*b*) Deliveries.
   (*c*) Telephones.
   (*d*) Miscellaneous.
2. Self-service stores:
   (*a*) Thus far limited to grocery lines and restaurants.

Organization:
1. Closely centralized:
   (*a*) Authority of store manager closely limited.
2. Loosely connected:
   (*a*) Authority of store manager broad.
3. Partnership type.
4. Manufacturers' chains.
5. Agency plan.

Type of product sold:
1. Material products:
   (*a*) Necessities.
   (*b*) Semi-necessities.
2. Services.

Trends:
1. Combination:

(*a*) Secures additional capital.
(*b*) Allows new operating economies:
  (1) Reduced overhead.
  (2) Increased purchasing power.
(*c*) Increases rate of expansion.
(*d*) Increases territorial extent.
(*e*) Relieves pressure of competition.

2. Manufacturing by chains:
  (*a*) Private brand:
    (1) Gives chain unfailing source of supply of uniform quality.
    (2) Tends to reduce cost of advertised articles.

CHAPTER II

THE CHAIN STORE FIELD

The chain store movement is as yet in its infancy. Judged by the comparatively recent origin of the movement and its rapid and unchecked growth, there is an economic place for chain stores in the life of the community. They help in no small way to keep the cost of living down and to stabilize retail prices. For example, when prices fell after the war, the canners reduced their prices. The jobbers passed on the saving to the small retailers, and there the saving stopped. The small retailer could not see far enough ahead to realize that he must pocket his loss and reduce his prices. But the chain grocery stores, buying direct from the canner, immediately revised prices in line with the new quotations.

The economic trend of the times is towards more direct distribution and a more rapid reflection of the course of wholesale prices in the retail field. The chain stores are working in accordance with this tendency and not against it. So far, the experiment has been limited to comparatively few types of products, but each year sees new chains in new fields, apparently prospering in the venture. Most independent retailers have ceased declaiming against the chain store and predicting its failure. They are accepting it as an accomplished fact, and their aim is to imitate, as far as possible, the methods used by the chains in obtaining their success, even to the extent of starting chains themselves.

The field of retailing has been immensely broadened. It now offers opportunity to men of ambition and vision. Brains came first, and then capital. The great founders of the present-day chain stores created them out of profits. Capital was slow in following the lead or realizing that a new field has been created for exploitation. Capital had been too much occupied with the profits of production and had paid little attention to those

of selling. The past century was the great age of productive effort in the world. The present century seems to be turning towards scientific sales effort. The chain store organizations have gone farthest with their experiments towards creating an efficient method of bringing the product to the consumer.

The Inception of the Movement.—The credit for founding the first large chain of stores belongs to George H. Hartford, the originator and, until his death, the president of the Great Atlantic & Pacific Tea Company. In 1857 he was in the hide and leather business in New York, and in 1859 he added tea as a side line. This venture was so successful that in 1864 he organized the Great American Tea Company. Then it occurred to him that it would be possible to have a chain of retail stores throughout New York and Brooklyn and in a few years he had a chain of 25 stores, called the Great Atlantic & Pacific Tea Company.

The dates of founding some of the more important chains are as follows:

Great Atlantic & Pacific Tea Company	1859
Jones Tea Company	1872
F. W. Woolworth Company	1879
James Butler	1882
Hanan Shoe Company	1885
Acme Tea Company (now part of American Stores Corporation)	1887
S. S. Kresge Company	1897
United Cigar Stores Company	1900
J. C. Penney Company	1902

The greater part of the development of these chains has taken place within the last 20 years, but it is interesting to note that all the earlier chains have attained considerable size and prominence. The Great Atlantic & Pacific Tea Company is still far ahead of all others in the number of stores operated. The date of the Hanan Shoe Company's starting its chain of retail stores shows that the idea of a manufacturer's chain was conceived comparatively early in the development, and the far greater expansion of the purely retail chains makes it seem that these chains will be the ultimate type.

Types of Chain Stores.—Chains may be classified in several ways, each one of which offers valuable points for analysis. They are:

1. *Geographical Extent.*—Under this heading chains may be divided into

(*a*) National.
(*b*) Sectional.
(*c*) Local.

2. *Policy.*—Under this heading come those particular sales and merchandising principles according to which the chain is operated.

(*a*) Cash-and-carry.
(*b*) Self-service.

3. *Organization.*—Chains have shown considerable variation on this point, due to difficulty in standardizing both men and methods.

(*a*) Closely centralized type.
(*b*) Loosely connected.
(*c*) "Penney" type.
(*d*) Combination of types.

4. *The Product Sold.*—This question of the product was at first comparatively limited, but in recent years it has been extended to such intangible products as places of amusement, barber shops, hotels, and other institutions offering service rather than a tangible product.

Chains Considered Geographically.—There are few national chains, if by national is meant operating stores in every or nearly every state in the union. Among the large chains, the Great Atlantic & Pacific Tea Company, the F. W. Woolworth Company, and the United Cigar Stores Company are the outstanding examples. Each of these chains has followed a policy of locating in the larger centers of population first.

The F. W. Woolworth Company claims to have a store in every town containing 8,000 inhabitants or over. Figure 1 shows how their stores are distributed. The great majority are located in New England and the Middle Western states, with New York and Pennsylvania in the lead. The growth of this chain will obviously follow the lines of population, and if in the future the inhabitants of the South or the West gather more in cities and towns, the Woolworth stores will follow them.

A great many chains are sectional, that is, they have outgrown their purely local character and have extended into the neighborhood. Some of these sectional chains, such as the Louis K. Liggett Company, show signs already of becoming national. The

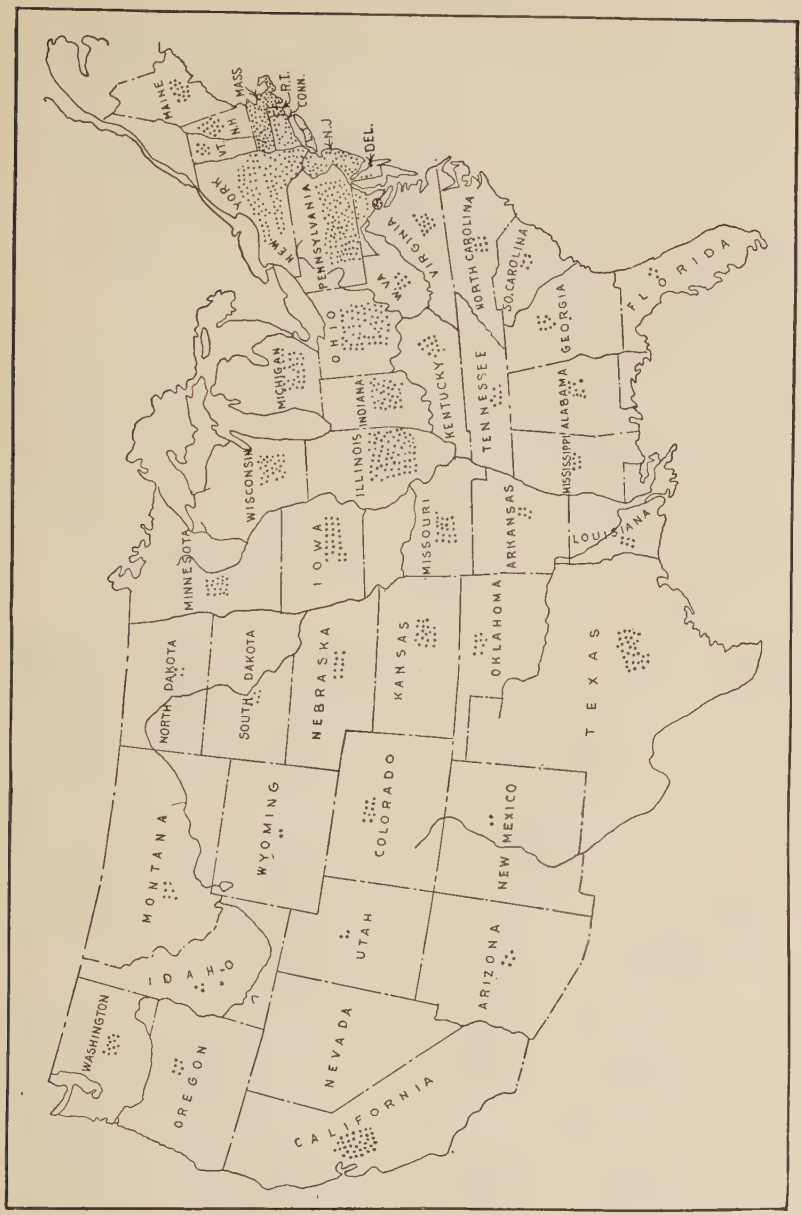


FIG. 1.—Distribution of Woolworth stores. Each dot represents a store.

Liggett Company, with 55 stores in New York City, 19 in Boston, 8 in Philadelphia, and 8 in Washington, has already extended its operations as far South as Georgia and Florida and, as far West as Oklahoma and Minnesota. Many grocery chains are sectional, such as the Kroger Grocery & Baking Company in the Middle West, the John T. Connor Company in Massachusetts, and the Mayflower Stores in Rhode Island.

Last of all, come the local chains, which form the bulk of the field, chains with two, three, five or ten links, all closely connected in the city or its immediate surroundings.

Few chains are started with the definite idea of making them national or even sectional. The growth is usually gradual and the steps in the growth perfectly logical. The local chain, which is superior in its methods, becomes sectional. The sectional chain keeps on expanding until it becomes too large to be called sectional, and becomes national.

Chains Considered According to Operating Policy.—The chain store's great appeal to the public has been saving in price. To attain this end, chain managements have been constantly scheming how to sell their goods at a greater saving. In 1912, the Great Atlantic & Pacific Tea Company did away with telephones, deliveries, and credits, and the company claims that from this change a 65 per cent increase in business has come about. This policy met, in fact, with instant approval from the purchasing public, a large part of which was willing to do without the extra services if it could obtain the saving in price. This policy has been generally adopted by chain store organizations and the name "chain store" now is almost synonymous with "cash-and-carry."

Richard M. Decker, treasurer of Charles M. Decker & Brothers of Orange, N. J., explains as follows the reasons which led them to change radically the type of their organizations:

> The company of Charles M. Decker & Brothers has operated so-called service grocery stores since 1871. However, due to changing conditions, the demand for this class of store was decreasing, rather than increasing, in this territory. Therefore, in the early part of 1918 we decided to enter the chain store business for ourselves. Since that time, we have closed all but three of our service stores and have opened, either ourselves or through the purchase of another company, approximately one hundred and sixty odd thrift stores.

In 1920 we organized a new company to take over the operating thrift stores of Charles M. Decker & Brothers and to open additional ones as times and conditions should warrant. Two companies are now being operated, but with one centralized purchasing and administrative organization. We have different schedules of prices in the two chains of stores; and it is needless to say that there is a difference in our accounting systems.

At present we consider the thrift stores the most satisfactory, but we also feel that there is enough demand in certain localities for a service grocery store; and whether the service grocery store should be continued depends, of course, upon whether there is sufficient demand. We would also add that in our service stores we carry a much greater assortment of merchandise than in our thrift stores.

Here, in a nutshell, is an answer to arguments against the chain cash-and-carry stores. The public prefers them to the service stores. The people who can afford to pay for extra services are comparatively few compared to those who prefer to carry their purchases home and save the money.

There has been one further development in cutting down expenses and this is the self-service store, as evidenced by the phenomenal growth of the Piggly Wiggly stores. There is saving in clerk hire as well as the customary savings in delivery and credits. The plan is simple. There are turnstile gates through which the customer enters. Goods are placed on open shelves with prices plainly marked. The customer opens the refrigerator and takes out whatever he or she wishes. It is impossible to leave the store without passing through all the aisles. When the customer reaches the out-turning wicket a clerk records the amount of the purchase and the customer pays this to the cashier.

Although the Piggly Wiggly stores appear to fill a certain need in retail merchandising, the rapid growth of the idea has brought about certain financial difficulties. The future of the self-service idea as embodied in the Piggly Wiggly stores is not yet certain.

The *Dry Goods Economist* quotes the following remarks about the profits and economies made by the Piggly Wiggly Company from the use of the self-service idea:

The first Piggly Wiggly store in Memphis, Tenn., was opened in a building formerly occupied by one of a chain of 20 stores. For the six months immediately preceding the taking over of the building by the Piggly Wiggly concern, the sales of the former chain store had approximated $34,000, with an approximate expense of $5,200. The Piggly

Wiggly organization retained the clerks formerly used in the other store and had the same management, but put into effect its self-service system and its own equipment. In the first six months of the Piggly Wiggly occupancy, $114,000 business was done at an expense of $3,400. The self-service system cut $300 per month from expenses, and showed a gain of $80,000 in sales. Under the old system the overhead had been 15 per cent; the Piggly Wiggly overhead was 3 per cent. For two months, June and July, 1920, this store did an average of $6,000 per week, while it carries $8,000 worth of merchandise at all times, giving it a 39-time turnover yearly.

The above account is obviously written from the Piggly Wiggly angle. A chain store which tried out the self-service method says:

We tried out the Piggly Wiggly idea of a self-service store, and it worked. In fact, it is one of our best stores. However, we find this is true: there is no tremendous saving in the payroll, as might be expected. We like this one store in its location, down town, and feel that it takes care of the afternoon rush more efficiently than the old style of store ever could. But for a residence neighborhood, we feel the self-service store would never work. Women like to have things explained to them. The personal factor is too valuable to warrant having a lot of mechanical stores without real human beings behind the counter.

This sounds strangely like the arguments that were put forth against the chain stores themselves in the early days, when it was freely predicted they could never be a success because of the lack of this very personal element which is brought up here against the self-service store. Actually, it is too early to speak with certainty as to the future of this development. It would seem that there should be a place for such a store in nearly every community, and the success of the Piggly Wiggly Company itself would seem to bear out this assumption.

Type of Chain Organization.—There is no standard type of chain organization. It varies all the way from the most closely connected organization possible under the circumstances to a very broad authority vested in the local manager. The grocery chains, the drug chains, and other chains dealing in staple commodities are ordinarily closely knit together. In other cases, each store is dependent on the head organization only for certain things, in others being a unit in itself, such as the hotel chains. Between these two extremes there is a wide gradation.

A different type of organization is usually required for chains which have several stores in each community than for those in

which the links are widely scattered. It takes a larger percentage of population to support a chain candy store than it does to support a chain drug or grocery store. The proximity of the various links in a grocery chain makes it easier to superintend their operation and makes it unnecessary to invest the branch manager with any great amount of authority.

The Penney system is explained at length later in the book. This partnership type of organization seems to fit the dry goods field particularly well, although there seems to be no inherent reason why it should not be applied to other fields with equal success.

The manufacturer's chain brings in so many new problems not existing in the average retailer's chain that the subject has been treated separately in Chap. XXI.

The agency plan as instituted by the United Drug Company seems outside the ordinary chain store field, since the agencies are not under one central executive control as are all other types of chains, including the manufacturer's chain.

The Type of Product.—In the last analysis, the greatest point of differentiation between chains is the type of product they sell. As previously mentioned, the chain idea has spread from the grocery and the five-and-ten-cent stores, until now it enters into many retailing lines. Following is a classification of some businesses successfully operating under chain store principles and practices:

Bakeries
Barbers
Beauty parlors
Butchers
Candy and confectionery
Cloaks and suits
Clothes
Dairy products
Drugs
Dry goods
Dyers and cleaners
Five-and-ten-cent stores
Florists
Fruit
Garages
Groceries
Haberdashery
Hardware
Hats
Hosiery
Hotels
Men's clothing
Millinery
Optical goods
Pianos
Radio
Restaurants
Shirts
Shoes
Stationery
Tailors
Theaters
Tobacco
Typewriters
Waists

It is not too much to say that all operating policies and methods depend on the nature of the product or service to be marketed, not only the method of accounting, the type of clerk, and the degree of supervision necessary, but also the location and the methods of publicity. The nature of the product will also determine the type of customer to which the chain must appeal.

Chain Store Trends.—The principal trend in chain store development until recent years has been the centralization into chains of the main lines of retail distribution, such as drugs, tobacco products, groceries, confectionery, ready-to-wear, and other merchandise. The result has been that the average chain store is small in size, with standard stock, giving little or no service, and merchandising strictly on a price basis.

Another and equally significant trend in chain store retailing has been the recent growth of departmentized chains. The five-and-ten-cent store chains have of course, been departmentized to a great extent, but the movement has extended even further. There are at least 40 chains of department stores in the country handling full lines of merchandise. These include, of course, chains of the Penney type, which limit offerings to standard articles, and also such enterprises as the Kresge Department Stores, Inc., with an authorized capital of $25,000,000 in 7 per cent preferred stock, and 200,000 shares of common stock. This chain started with the purchase of the L. S. Plaut Company in Newark, N. J., and the Palais Royal in Washington, D. C. These stores, and others to be added later, will be operated on a mass selling basis, having centralized buying, advertising, merchandising, and other special activities.

There have been several other developments of importance along these lines. R. H. Macy & Company has bought a controlling interest in the LaSalle & Koch store of Toledo, Ohio. The May Department Stores Company, already operating four large stores, has purchased the Hamburger store in Los Angeles, Cal.

The advantages of having a chain of department stores, each consisting of a number of departments which are members of chains of similar departments, are evident. Suppose, for example, that there is a chain of ten department stores, each of which has a ready-to-wear, a shoe, a millinery, and other departments. The shoe departments would form a chain within the chain, having

all the advantages of massed buying power and mass selling economies. It would be the same with the other departments. One buyer would buy merchandise for all departments in the chain instead of for one department in one store alone. He would be able to obtain the benefits of quantity purchases. The individual department store is rapidly growing to be at a disadvantage when competing with the chain. While it may have a hundred departments to buy for, which in the aggregate makes up a large volume of purchases, the chain is buying but one type of commodity. A store with ten links might purchase the same quantity of shoes as a large department store. With 50 links, its volume of purchases would be immensely greater.

Combination.—It seems to be a principle of chain store growth that a chain will attain a certain size by carefully plodding ahead on the most conservative lines and then suddenly merge with another chain of the same size, or one slightly smaller.

There have been three great chain mergers. In 1912, the F. W. Woolworth Company was formed to take over and operate six five-and-ten-cent store chains, *viz.:*

	Stores
F. W. Woolworth & Company	318
S. H. Knox & Company	112
F. M. Kirby & Company	96
E. P. Charlton & Company	53
C. S. Woolworth	15
W. H. Moore	2
Total	596

At one stroke the F. W. Woolworth Company became a national chain, for the various components had each developed a separate section of the country. The motives for the merger were plain. It gave at once a stronger financial organization, much greater buying power, and a consequent wider range of articles which could be sold at 5 and 10 cents, and, lastly, it increased operating efficiency.

The second great merger was in the grocery field in Philadelphia, when the following five chains combined to form the American Stores Company in 1917:

	Founded	Stores
The Acme Tea Company	1887	433
Robinson-Crawford	1891	186
The Bell Company	1890	214
Childs	1883	268
Dunlap & Company	1888	122
Total		1,223

This total of 1,223 stores made the American Stores Company, one of the largest grocery chains in the country, and the only chain operating more than 1,000 stores which was not national or sectional in scope. The results are substantially the same as in the Woolworth combination.

The mergers of small chains which take place constantly are rarely discussed. They are not large enough to cause much stir in the commercial world. But this process, which goes on unceasingly, and has been more rapid of late years, has enormously increased the number of chain stores. No sooner do two or more chains combine than a new chain arises to compete with them. No chain has yet succeeded in having a monopoly, because the fields in which it operates are open to its competitors.

MANUFACTURING BY CHAINS

When the chain stores first came into conflict with manufacturers on the questions of buying direct and maintaining manufacturers' prices, the result was that in many cases the chains started factories of their own to manufacture a certain portion of their products which they found it difficult to obtain outside. These manufactured products they labeled with a brand of their own invention and placed them in competition with the advertised articles.

On the part of the grocers, the business of manufacturing their own brands was taken directly from the practice of the jobbers and wholesale grocers, 75 per cent of whom had for a long time been manufacturing. The war, shutting off as it did a great deal of importation from Europe, was a great stimulus to chain manufacturing. The Woolworth Company, particularly, took this opportunity to start manufacturing many articles.

The United Drug Company, an association of manufacturers, has provided for the sale of its products not only through its

own chain of stores, the Louis K. Liggett Company, but through an extensive chain of agencies. The United Cigar Stores Company, which manufactures many of its own brands, pursues this same policy of extending sales through agencies into districts which are hardly large enough to support one of the company's own stores. The Winchester Stores Company has attempted this same scheme of obtaining distribution for manufactured products and this method is used by the majority of the manufacturers' chains. The goods manufactured by the chain are sold at lower prices:

1. It gives the chain an unfailing source of supply of goods to sell, in uniform quantities, and of uniform quality,

2. It tends to keep the price of advertised articles down.

But independent manufacturers need have no fear that the manufacturing policy of the chain will do away with all demand for their products, provided they are merchandised properly. The customer of the chain store can be sure of getting what he asks for.

In several cases, chain systems manufacture a great deal of the equipment and supplies used.

Conclusions.—The chain store movement is still in the growing stage. Differentiation is bound to occur. That is, the science of retailing has only in the past few years passed the experimental stage. Standardization is brought about by increased competition and the resulting elimination of the unfit. Thus, in the future, chain store practice will become even more standardized than it is today, granting, of course, individual and minor differences in policy or the guiding influence of a great executive.

The limits to chain store development, according to Irving S. Paull, a well known authority on distribution, are the following:

1. The chain store enters a community after it has been demonstrated that there is a sufficient volume of business to be obtained to warrant locating in any selected community.

2. The chain systems do not find it profitable to carry wide assortments for the occasional convenience of customers or fluctuating demand.

3. The chain store does not furnish certain services, conveniences, and accommodations which are demanded by the majority of consumers. These demands add materially to the risks and costs of operating a merchandise institution.

4. There is a degree of detachment between the chain store link and the community which it serves. The salaried manager of a branch has only a limited authority with which to meet local demands made upon him as a matter of civic duty.

These limitations, however, apply only to the chain store in its present state of development. There is no inherent reason why a chain which should stock complete lines and give customer services could not be successfully operated. In fact, it is readily conceivable that such a chain would be able to operate more efficiently than its independent competitors. But chain development has hitherto followed the lines of least resistance. It is only when the non-service demand is satisfied that there will be sufficient incentive to develop the service market.

CHAPTER III

LOCATING THE STORE

Outline

The general location as determined by:
1. The product to be sold:
   (*a*) Necessities:
      (1) Must be located on traffic.
   (*b*) Shopping lines:
      (1) May locate off traffic, provided:
         Advertising is done.
2. The policy of the company:
   (*a*) To locate in centers of population.
   (*b*) To locate in small towns.
3. The distance from source of supply:
   (*a*) From factory.
   (*b*) From warehouse.

The specific town or city:
1. Movement of population:
   (*a*) Anchored as far as business district is concerned.
   (*b*) City moving uphill.
   (*c*) Moving away from rivers.
2. Number of the population:
   (*a*) Rate of growth.
3. Character of population:
   (*a*) Determined by:
      (1) Industries in city.
4. Amount of suburban trade.

The prospective site:
1. Distance from shopping center:
   (*a*) From railroads.
   (*b*) From junction points.
   (*c*) From competitive stores.
2. The side of the street:
   (*a*) Shady side more suited for women's shops:
      (1) Rent higher.

Analyzing the traffic:
1. According to volume:
   (*a*) By hours of the day.
   (*b*) By days of the week.

2. By sex:
   (*a*) Male.
   (*b*) Female.
3. Traffic entering neighboring stores.
4. Amount of traffic carrying bundles.
5. Type of traffic:
   (*a*) Shoppers.
   (*b*) Commuters.
   (*c*) Miscellaneous.

The building:

1. Construction:
   (*a*) Number of stores.
   (*b*) Material.
   (*c*) Condition.
   (*d*) Heating.
   (*e*) Water supply.
   (*f*) Miscellaneous.
2. Present occupants:
   (*a*) Character.
   (*b*) Length of leases.
   (*c*) Degree of success obtained in location.
3. The store:
   (*a*) Floor space:
      (1) Necessity of new partitioning.
   (*b*) Fixtures.
   (*c*) Display windows:
      (1) Arrangement.
   (*d*) Entrance:
      (1) Up steps or level.
   (*e*) Lighting.

Renting or owning:

1. Dependent on:
   (*a*) Size of chain.
   (*b*) Capital.
   (*c*) Rate of expansion.
   (*d*) Policy.
2. Possibilities of profit from owning and renting remainder of building to tenants.
3. Advisability of special realty department to:
   (*a*) Collect rents.
   (*b*) See to improvements.
   (*c*) Make rentals and new leases.
   (*d*) Miscellaneous.

CHAPTER III

LOCATING THE STORE

No matter whether a merchant is locating his second or his two hundredth store, its location is of first importance. Probably more has been written about locating the chain store than any other phase of the subject. The reason is simple. There is no other aspect of the business which is calculated so much to catch the public interest, always alive to novel merchandising methods. There is something out of the ordinary in the idea of a man or several men standing on a street corner and clocking the passers-by. Yet this was the method initiated by the United Cigar Stores and widely imitated over the whole country.

Many chain store systems maintain real estate departments, which are organized to a high degree. A department of this sort not only picks the sites, but it takes care of the buildings, makes improvements, renews leases—in a word, takes entire charge of the company's property. A separate real estate department, of course, is possible only for chains possessing a large number of stores and facilities for increasing this number at a comparatively steady rate.

But location is not always a matter of finding out where the largest number of people pass during the day. Some large chains rely little on this factor to secure patronage. An example of such a chain is the J. C. Penney Company, which wants low rents. It seldom rents a store in what is supposed to be the best locality, although much depends on the town and the character of possible customers. It tries to locate in a fairly central position in the town, but rarely on the main street. It will go to the very edge of the business district if the downtown side streets are too expensive. This policy is justified for this company, which finds that people will come without much regard to location. This rule must be modified occasionally. As one of its officials says, a farmer will walk a block to save a few cents,

but a miner will not. Therefore, in mining districts the Penney policy has to be made to suit conditions.

General Principles of Location.—In the old days a merchant bought or rented a store where he could get it. He hung out his sign and waited for customers. If such a policy were tried today, he would still be waiting. If the modern merchant is not prepared to make his presence known by advertising or by cut prices or special sales, he must put his store where the largest number of potential customers will see it.

The first thing to do when locating a store is to analyze the business and see exactly to whom the goods are to be retailed and how trade is to be attracted. One of the experts in locating sites divides merchants into two classes:

1. *Those Who Advertise.*—Such merchants can afford to take a chance on location. He gives such notable examples as Lane Bryant in New York, maternity-garment merchandisers, who cater to a Fifth Avenue public, although located half a block away from Fifth Avenue on 38th Street. Another example is Spear & Company, furniture retailers, New York, who have made a big success, although located on what is technically the wrong side of the street. A furniture store, to be sure, has a somewhat different problem from the ordinary retailer, and can sometimes afford to locate out of the main traffic.

2. *Non-advertisers.*—The second type of merchants must select locations which naturally obtrude on the public vision. The circulation of traffic may be compared to a river which has overflowed its banks. The main current flows steadily on while in the backwaters there is little motion or perhaps an eddy. The merchant who succeeds in locating on the main artery of commerce and whose merchandizing plan is otherwise suitable must be successful, while the merchant around the corner finds little traffic coming spontaneously to his door.

Cigar and drug stores endeavor to locate near some point where traffic is heavy. In fact, a cigar store finds it difficult to make a success unless it is on a corner. The United Cigar Stores have gone so far as to make it a rule that their stores shall all be on corners. A drug store can take an inside location, provided the traffic does not have to go out of its way more than a short distance.

The first principle of locating a chain store is this: If the traffic cannot be made to come to the store by special inducement, such as advertising, or price, then the store must be located in the path of traffic.

The Locality.—Almost every chain has a definite objective when going into a community. It knows exactly where its store ought to be. Rarely is it possible to obtain this location at once. Often it is a case of waiting years. One chain has a lease on property in San Antonio which will not go into effect for seven years. Another lease made in Norfolk starts in five years. The real estate department is looking well into the future.

The future of the community must be considered a fundamental factor in determining location. Some cities are constantly moving, others are safely anchored. Wherever the high-class residence district is, the high-class business district will follow. Business has gone out Euclid Avenue, in Cleveland, Woodward Avenue in Detroit, and East Avenue in Rochester, N. Y.

But where there are physical obstacles to this, such as a steep hill in Providence, R. I., or rivers, as in Pittsburgh, the business section cannot move except in certain directions. As a general rule, populations grow uphill. If office buildings predominate in a locality, stores selling goods with a shopping appeal will be found elsewhere.

Charles Nicholls, Jr., president of the Chain Stores Leasing Company, gives an interesting résumé of the method by which he establishes the value of a piece of property:

1. Ascertain the population.
2. Determine the type and habits of the people.
3. Investigate main industries to see whether location is good for men or women. Youngstown, Altoona, and Akron are good for men. Fall River, Lowell, and New Bedford are good for women, because of the large number of women employed in the factories there.
4. Investigate bank deposits and clearings. These give an excellent history of business conditions. However, it is necessary to ascertain how these are divided among the population. It might be in a medium-sized town that the majority of the clearings were due to a small number of individuals.
5. Find out the number of different industries. Find out also the proportion of workmen to clerks. Washington, D. C., for example, has a

large clerical population, while Schenectady has a large number of skilled and unskilled workmen.

6. After having considered the above points, the proper method is to study the prevailing local rental conditions. The available business blocks are investigated with relation to the traffic. Men's locations are differentiated from women's. When the block has been chosen, secure definite and reliable information on each piece of property and the possibility of securing it. The value depends mainly on the volume of actual business. One location might be worth $3,000 to one man, $4,000 to another. In addition, it is necessary to take into consideration the drawing power of the surrounding territory.

The above outline of method sets forth the general course of procedure. It brings out clearly the salient points to be investigated.

Analyzing the Traffic.—The value of analyzing the traffic passing by a potential chain store site lies in the fact that the different chains have carefully worked out statistics on which they can base judgments. They can compare conditions existing in the old stores. They know the percentage of people passing a given point who will enter a store such as theirs. For example, the United Cigar Stores Company has a fairly definite idea, after it has analyzed the traffic, not only how many men will enter its store, but also how many will buy, and the average sale to each one. Knowing this, it is comparatively easy to figure what an individual store will earn, or, better, the volume of sales each store will make. In each case, allowance is made for the type of the locality, the traffic, etc.

Undoubtedly, clocking is the most spectacular method in choosing the chain store sites, that is, determining how many people pass a given point, to what type they belong, whether they carry bundles, their sex, their age, or any other information which may be desired. From one to four men are required to gather this information, and it may be gathered for several days and even weeks. Some chains will not establish stores unless it is found that at least 15,000 people a day pass the point where it is proposed to establish the store.

Figure 2 shows the questionnaire which the investigator for a bakery chain had to fill in. It is to be supposed that some definite site was already in view when the investigator was sent out to cover some location. Here the hourly traffic was gaged,

How near is shopping centre.....
State nearest bakery.....
Distance of store from United Cigar Store.....
Distance of store from Liggett's Drug Store.....
Distance of store from Schulte Cigar Store.....
Will owner agree to run necessary two-inch gas pipe from oven.....

Details of Traffic Hours	Males	Females	How Many People Carried Packages	Total Number
7 A.M. to 8 A.M.				
8 A.M. to 9 A.M.				
9 A.M. to 10 A.M.				
10 A.M. to 11 A.M.				
11 A.M. to 12 Noon				
12 Noon to 1 P.M.				
1 P.M. to 2 P.M.				
2 P.M. to 3 P.M.				
3 P.M. to 4 P.M.				
4 P.M. to 5 P.M.				
5 P.M. to 6 P.M.				
6 P.M. to 7 P.M.				
7 P.M. to 8 P.M.				
8 P.M. to 9 P.M.				
9 P.M. to 10 P.M.				
10 P.M. to 11 P.M.				
11 P.M. to 12 Midnight				
Grand totals				

Remarks.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

.....
Investigator's Signature

.....
Approved

.....
Approved

Fig. 2.—Questionnaire used by bakery chain to determine attractive store sites.

divided by sexes. It was also important to ascertain how many people carried bundles.

Some such plan as this should be followed in nearly all cases where new stores are to be opened. It is especially important to know in advance the size of this volume of traffic where the store does not rely on other means of attracting trade. Department stores, women's ready-to-wear stores, specialty shops, and some shoe stores can afford to take a chance of making up traffic deficiencies by their own efforts, but this means money expended and it is always a debatable question whether increased rents and more traffic are not better than lower rents and increased advertising with decreased profits. A mistake in location may prove costly, because often stores are taken on long-term leases. A chain may find it profitable in some cases to take a location, formerly devoted exclusively to retailing tobacco products, and make it a candy store devoted exclusively to the retailing of confectionery.

The investigators for many chains have to go much further in analyzing the traffic than is indicated in this bakery questionnaire. They take into consideration the direction of the traffic, both in general and at special times of the day. There are definite currents of traffic which it is possible to set down statistically. In some cases the number of people entering other stores in the same line of business is noted as well as the number of persons leaving that store with bundles. In suburban districts it is frequently found valuable to analyze the number of persons returning home from the city with packages, indicating that purchasing is done elsewhere. In many cases this may prove an inducement to the chain store to enter that locality, accepting this foreign purchasing as an index that prices in the district are too high.

Grocery stores ordinarily tend to cheaper locations. In the majority of cases they are a strictly neighborhood proposition, the prevalent cash-and-carry feature making this almost universal. In some cases, however, stores in the heart of the business district have been found exceedingly profitable, particularly when run in connection with some lunch room or restaurant feature.

Location and Buying Habits.—It is quite possible that 15,000 people might pass a given location daily, yet that location prove

useless simply because the people and the product were not suited. People going from the railroad station to the business district to work will often stop and purchase tobacco and candy, but they rarely would have time to shop in a department store.

Mr. Nicholls says:

> I analyze the traveling population carefully. I notice where people get on and off the cars. I classify the general types. I can tell the "drop-in" type, which is quite different from the type which comes prepared to purchase. There is also the station traffic, the commuters. These are always in a hurry.

Every location will have a certain type of purchaser, and this type of purchaser varies at different times of the day. Now from this it is possible to draw rather definite conclusions. It is evident that some locations are particularly fitted to some types of stores. For example, the five-and-ten-cent store does 90 per cent of its business with women. Its usual policy is to locate as near as possible to a department store, thus getting the benefit of the department store's great drawing power. If a department store is not available, some other magnet which draws people, such as a theater or a drug store, will do although the latter are not considered nearly so effective. Since a five-and-ten-cent store in itself is not important enough to draw people to it, it must rely on putting itself in the way of its potential patrons. It will not be a success in the office district, where the great majority of pedestrians are men.

It has long been known that sides of the street differ in the amount and the nature of business done. Ordinarily, the shady side of the street is given over to women's trade, and rentals are 25 per cent higher. Department stores are an example of this. There are exceptions in Boston on Tremont Street, where the Common makes it impossible to seek the shady side, and in Rochester, N. Y., where the sunny side was originally chosen and no change has since been made.

In similar fashion, one side of the street may be good for candy stores and fatal to shoe stores. Going even further, one side of the street may be good for expensive shoes and bad for cheap shoes, and *vice versa*. A cigar store which was a failure

on one side of the street might be successful on the other side; and this can be predetermined to a great extent by analyzing the traffic.

Returning for a moment to the population of the city, it is possible in many cases to determine the per capita consumption in a given city or district of a given product. By gathering statistics such as these, George J. Whelan, founder of the United Cigar Stores, was able to establish his locations in a more scientific fashion than would otherwise have been possible. For example, he made up the following list of the per capita consumption of tobacco in the largest cities:

San Francisco	$4.06	Rochester, N. Y.	$0.90
Atlantic City	2.55	Chicago	0.63
New York	1.74	Spokane	0.60
St. Louis	1.21	Milwaukee	0.22

Such figures are readily ascertainable by the ordinary methods of commercial research. By a glance at the above table, it is evident that a great many more people would have to pass a United Cigar Stores location in Milwaukee than in San Francisco before the same volume of sales could be obtained.

Such a list as the above is of only temporary value and must not be relied on too far. Buying and consuming habits are constantly changing. New styles, new people, new industries, all have a bearing. Therefore, such figures must be constantly kept up to date. An increase in per capita consumption would mean more stores, a decrease, a policy of curtailment or of artificial stimulation of consumption.

City and Surburban Locations.—In the earlier stages of the chain store development, many stores were located hit-or-miss. Some of them succeeded and some of them failed. But those that failed went out of business for good and sufficient reasons. There was nothing intangible about their failure. Many of them succeeded because they could not help doing so. The business was forced upon them. But, in general, the larger chains have always followed a standard policy in choosing locations, and the smaller chains can only hope to compete by doing the same. Locations are always becoming available

through growth in population, but, generally speaking, locations are becoming scarcer and competition keener.

Chains normally start in large cities, spread in that city, and then jump to another large city. This was the manner in which the Great Atlantic & Pacific Tea Company started as well as the United Cigar Stores. Later they return and comb the smaller communities. Woolworth started in a small town and then spread to larger communities. Penney follows a policy of clinging preferably to the smaller communities, and in this way effects many economies, at the same time having a monopoly of the chain department store field in these localities.

In cities, the most likely locations are taken first. Expansion then extends to the suburbs, and finally to the smaller towns nearby which fall within the warehouse radius. In obtaining data on suburban locations, a favorite method is to watch the delivery route of some independent competitor and, if it is judged that the volume of trade is heavy enough, a store is opened. Some grocery chains have surprising successes in quality suburban locations, seemingly well filled with flourishing businesses.

Individual Policies.—It is an interesting psychological fact that customers dislike walking upstairs to make a purchase. Women wlll always go down to the basement rather than up to the second floor of a department store. The United Cigar Stores Company has capitalized this trait. It avoids raising the level of the store either a step above or below the street, making it exactly even. In fact, this is now becoming standard practice among many retailers.

Furthermore, the store entrance is set at an angle, so that traffic on either street can readily see into the store. In this way, the corner location is made to yield full value. In addition, it prevents congestion as well as gives a pleasing impression. The United people never hesitate to open one store across from one of their own shops already operating, if traffic conditions seem to warrant. Wherever this policy has been followed, it has been found that there was no falling off of business in the old store.

As a matter of fact, chain stores show a tendency to cling together in localities. Chain grocery stores often occupy the same block, and frequently are located next to each other.

Location Experts.—There has been much controversy as to how efficient the chain store leasing experts actually are. It has been claimed that only a local real estate man is able to appraise the value of a piece of property at its true worth. There is no doubt that the chain store realty man is overcharged, because it is well known that the chains are able to pay. It is even possible that a chain store is willing to pay more for a certain location than the previous independent occupant. But it is usually for good and sufficient reasons. When a chain store expert has analyzed a location, he *knows* whether that location is going to prove satisfactory, and the company is willing to risk its money on the accuracy of his judgment.

One chain store company has 17 stores in operation. Before opening the eighteenth, it called in an expert. He picked out a location and submitted an estimate of the first year's sales which, in actual practice turned out to be only $8,000 less. The United Cigar Stores scouts have done even better than this. So highly developed are their methods that they have often given estimates of the first six months' business which came within $200 of actual sales.

When it is possible to obtain such accuracy as this, there seems little possibility of failure. But chain store location experts must be highly paid. Their ability to forecast is not obtained immediately, but is the fruit of long and tedious observation. They are assisted by a large number of records, some companies having statistics in their files about almost every city of size in the United States.

One of the largest five-and-ten-cent stores believes that intuition and "horse sense" have much to do with opening new stores, coupled with the usual standard investigations. It rarely happens, according to them, that an overestimate is made. Occasionally in opening up a new location, the "percentage lease" is resorted to, the lessee paying as rent a certain percentage of his gross sales.

The Real Estate Department.—Many of the larger chain store systems, as has been said, maintain a highly organized real estate department to take care of property and buildings, make improvements, close leases, improve property, etc. But it is only the larger chains that can afford to install a special

Date.....

City.....Population.....

Number of Railroads.....Names.....

.....

Number of Street Car Lines.....Names.....

.....

Description of Property.....

.....

Location.....

.....

Condition of Store.....

.....

Dimensions.....

Term of Lease.....

Rental.....

Allowance by Owner.....

Owner's Name.....

Agent.....

Date when possession can be had.....

Time necessary to make repairs and alterations.....

Give list of adjacent stores in block both sides.....

.....

.....

How long has present store been vacant?.....

Inquire of three adjacent store owners.....

.....

.....

How many vacancies in block both sides? No.....

How many tenants in present store in last five years?.....

Give reason for change of tenants.....

Do you approve of store for Bakery?.....

Give your reasons.....

.....

How many bakeries in town?.....

What brands of bread sold?.....

How near are markets?.....

.....

FIG. 3.—Report on possible property for use by chain bakery.

organization for this purpose. In the smaller chain one or two individuals may have charge of the real estate, while in the very small chains it forms only a portion of one person's duties.

The location expert locates the store. He may have done all that was in his power to insure the prosperity of this link in the chain by the exercise of his experience and judgment; but the real estate department must carry on his work. Many events occur which may have more or less important bearing on the future of the chain. If the business falls off, it is not alone the function of the sales department to ascertain why, but it also comes within the province of the realty department. Populations are not stationary. They move. Residential areas gradually become business sections. A large factory will change the character of a neighborhood in a few years. A foreign-speaking population may come in whose habits of living are utterly unlike those of the previous population.

If the realty department finds some such event as this taking place, and the store manager is usually well acquainted with neighborhood events, it may be highly inadvisable to renew a lease for a long period at the same rent.

But neighborhoods do not always deteriorate. In many cases, locations in the outskirts, which apparently now are worth little, and which handle but a fraction of the trade turned over by the downtown establishments, may, in the course of ten years, be the centers of large and thriving populations.

Figure 3 shows how carefully the bakery chain mentioned before reports on real estate locations, in addition to clocking and analyzing the traffic. The population of the city, the number of railroads and street car lines, the condition of the property, the rental, time of possession, adjacent vacancies, everything that can throw light on the real value of the location, is put down. The number of times tenants have changed in the last five years, and the reasons for their changes, are found out.

No detail which will augment the success of the chain is too small to consider. In real estate dealings, as elsewhere, it is the spirit of efficiency, of standardized operations, which must make itself felt. Some idea of the detail involved in the problem of locating a store is indicated by the questionnaire form in the following five pages:

REAL ESTATE REPORT

City.....State.....

Retail Zone Boundaries, by street.....

.....

Traffic Points.....

Principal Retail Streets

1.....from.....to.....side.....front ft. rate.....

Class of establishments.....

General Character Foot Traffic.....

2.....from.....to.....side.....front ft. rate.....

Class of establishments.....

General Character Foot Traffic.....

3.....from.....to.....side.....front ft. rate.....

Class of establishments.....

General Character Foot Traffic.....

In Our Judgment Best Location for a Retail Store for Women's Articles Would Be:

1.....from.....to.....side.....front ft. rate.....

2.....from.....to.....side.....front ft. rate.....

In Our Judgment Best Location for a Retail Store for Men's Articles Would Be:

1.....from.....to.....side.....front ft. rate.....

2.....from.....to.....side.....front ft. rate.....

In Our Judgment Best Location for a Retail Store for a General Line Would Be:

1.....from.....to.....side.....front ft. rate.....

2.....from.....to.....side.....front ft. rate.....

Best local broker or correspondent.....

Remarks.....

.....

.....

Suitable for: { Men's line / Women's line / General line }

Building No.....

Available.....

between.....and.....side

.....story.....Erected.....

Constructed of.....

Condition.....

Other tenants.....

.....

Neighbors: Right.....

Left.....

Opposite.....

Others.....

Sidewalks, kind.....Width.....

Street, kind.....Width.....Lighting.....

Water Supply.....Toilets.....

Heating.....

Fire Protection.....

Store self-contained or sub-divided?.....

Partition walls.....

Insurance rate on building.....Fixtures.....

Insurance rate on merchandise.....

Restrictions, if any.....

Building owned by.....

Remarks.....

.....

.....

STORE

Suitable for: { Men's line / Women's line / General line }

..... Feet front ..... feet deep. Ceilings ..... feet

..... Feet wide in rear .....

Display Windows: Style .....

How many? .....

Size ..... Lighting .....

Remarks .....

Fixtures, if any .....

.....

Shelving .....

How is store entrance? .....

Level or steps from sidewalk .....

Rear or shipping entrance .....

Windows .....

Lighting .....

Heating .....

Condition of floor ..... Load .....

Condition of side walls .....

Condition of ceilings .....

Remarks .....

.....

BASEMENT

.....Feet front.....feet deep. Ceilings.....feet

.....

Stairway.....

Elevator.....

Outside entrance.....

Fixtures.....

Shelving.....

Floor: Material.....

Condition.....

Drainage.....

Windows.....

Lighting.....

Condition of side walls.....

Condition of ceilings.....

Remarks.....

Sub-basement.....

.....

Any storage yard to building?.....

.....

Any storage shed outside?.....

.....

SECOND STORY

Suitable for: Men's line / Women's line / General line

.....Feet front.....feet deep. Ceilings.....feet

.....

Stairway to main floor: Width.....Height of steps.....

Number of steps.....Finish.....

Balustrade.....Landings.....

Front Display Windows.....

Other Windows.....

Any large central opening to main floor?.....

.....

If not, the possibilities for such an opening.....

.....

Partitions.....

Fixtures.....

Shelving.....

Condition of floor.....Load.....

Condition of side walls.....

Condition of ceilings.....

Lighting.....

Heating.....

Remarks.....

What are floors above?.....

Renting Stores.—How much rent can a chain store afford to pay? This is a difficult question to answer. But it has been established by experts that there are certain percentages of gross receipts which should govern the rent paid by different types of businesses. For example, high-class retail stores which are large advertisers can afford to pay 6 per cent of gross receipts. These figures should be taken as applying over a considerable period, possibly for the entire period of the lease. During this period, receipts should increase in proportion to rent.

Taking the ratios in more detail, Mr. Nicholls has compiled the following list:

Shoe stores	8
Department stores	3
Five and tens—non-advertising	5
Non-advertising specialty stores	8
Theaters and hotels	9
Drug stores, candy, fruit, etc	10
Grocery stores	10
Cigar stores	6–8
Barber shops, shoe-shining establishments, etc	12
Cloak and suit	6

With such a wide variation, it is apparent that few different types of chains will desire the same location. Such a table as the above is valuable in making estimates for new locations and in judging the performances of old stores. A great many stores may do better, but if one does less it is a sign of trouble.

Many policies are followed in regard to renting stores. Some chains prefer to secure sites that will do for purchase. Then they rent superfluous space to other retailers. In some cases, this policy has resulted in the chain store's obtaining its portion of the building free of charge, the overhead of the building being carried from rent derived from the other stores.

The United Cigar Stores are famous exponents of this policy. The real estate department purchases a corner, remodels the stores, takes its own portion on the corner, and rents the rest.

Locations which the real estate department picks up cheaply may be sold at a profit and still provide for the future of the company's chain store in that location.

The real estate department has frequent occasion to scrutinize buying habits. If it buys a building, it wants to know whether

the location is suitable for a grocery, a drug store, a department store, a bakery, etc. It is almost as important that the stores surrounding the chain store be prosperous as that the chain store itself be prosperous. Prosperity attracts trade. If the chain store selects its own neighbors, as it can often do by calling the attention of non-competing businesses to excellent qualities of the location, it can insure the class of trade to which it wishes to appeal. That is, to its own pulling power is added the combined pulling power of all the other stores and, since the buying appeal of the chain store is largely to the eye and the pocketbook of the customer, any increase in purchasing traffic past the store is advantageous. It is well known that people who come to buy in one store often buy articles which they need in adjacent stores rather than go elsewhere.

Wherever the chain store realty department decides to retain the property, it collects all rents and reports to the central organization. It also collects rent from the chain store itself. This is often necessary, since, although the chain realty department should operate at a profit, it is often necessary to operate at a loss, caused by large expenditures in improving new locations, purchasing property in advance of the city's growth, etc.

The Childs Company has data on practically every place suited to its needs in the United States. This detailed information renders it fairly easy for the company to keep ahead of its expansion program. Childs' policy is to make long-term leases, from 21 to 99 years.

When a chain store organization attains any size, there is no lack of locations offered for its inspection. One of the chain store leasing companies has an average of five new locations brought to its attention daily, and each one is carefully investigated. One grocery chain of 50 stores in the Middle West says:

> Our stores have attained such a standing in the community that the developers of every new allotment in the city come to us and offer us a center lot for one of our stores. Other people continually offer us vacant storerooms for rent, or try to sell us lots. Right now we own about 18 lots on which we shall build within the next three to five years. In the meantime, we will rent several stores if we find the kind we want, in the right location, and if the rent is not too high. If the rent is too high, we wait for it to come down, or look around for a place to build.

Building vs. Renting.—It is probably safe to say that the great majority of chain stores are rented, although this depends to some extent on the type of business. This policy avoids much trouble for the company in looking after a large real estate department and the worries that a real estate department always brings with it. Then, after all, the primary function of the chain store company is retailing. Real estate is only a by-product of the industry, so to speak.

But many chain stores have peculiar requirements. They wish a standardized front, to which the neighbors may object. Most chain store fronts are made in such a way as to be readily recognizable. Therefore, in order to get in certain locations it may be necessary to purchase and remodel.

Purchasing and building requires more capital and consequently a larger investment. There is more to lose if the property deteriorates, although there is also more to gain if it improves. The chain grocery store ordinarily prefers a one-story building with a standardized front and standardized fixtures. A grocery chain, naturally choosing a low-priced location, rarely finds it profitable to build additional stories to rent to tenants. The rental from the upstairs portion does not justify the added investment.

The problem of a local chain is, in a way, quite different from that of a national chain. The local chain officials, at the start, are well acquainted with the character of the townsmen, and the buying habits of the people. They know by daily experience what the national chain investigator has to learn from statistics. That they often fail to achieve true success does not disprove the fact that their initial opportunity is better for profits than is that of the national chain. They are on the spot, they are known, they are compact, and their problems are comparatively simple.

Quality Locations.—For many years—in fact, until quite recently—chain stores were regarded as merchandising ventures exclusively devoted to the interests of the poorer classes. To be seen going in or out of a chain store was avoided. Merchants on the better streets frowned upon the advent of the chain store. When Childs bought their location on Fifth Avenue in New York City, there was great nodding of heads and portents of failure.

But the Childs organization went ahead and erected a building, letting all but the ground floor. There was only room for 29 tables, 116 seats in all. But the profit on each of these 116 chairs was carefully reckoned within a cent or two on daily turnover. These statistics had been secured by applying the results of long experience to the traffic passing the door.

When the Woolworth organization decided on Fifth Avenue for its thousandth store, Mr. Woolworth went so far as to become a member of the Fifth Avenue Association. The bright red signs were kept, but the window dressing was carried only half way up. It is reported that the location makes no difference in the number of mousetraps sold and the luncheon counter is just as busy at noon as it is anywhere else.

It is said the United Cigar Stores pay $27,000 a year rent for one of its Fifth Avenue locations. The company's architect was told to design what would be the most beautiful cigar store in the country. The exterior is in black and gold marble with the name of the company in specially designed letters of bronze and gilt. The familiar red signs are made narrower and less conspicuous. The bases of the counters and the showcases are black and gold marble. The showcase frames and all decorations are of bronze. The windows are dressed with the care of a jewelry store.

Quality locations illustrate one important trend in chain store development, and that is the tendency of chain store systems to break into the exclusive retailing sections and, what is more, make a success in their new surroundings.

Conclusions.—One of the reasons for chain store success undoubtedly is scientific locating of member stores. No retailer can afford to pass over the opportunity presented him to capitalize on the location. The fact that the chains have been able to go in under the local retailers' noses and capture the best sites merely goes to show how badly new principles of retailing were needed in the community.

The congested districts, as a rule, offer the best opportunities because of their compactness. The product, however, and the chain policy may determine otherwise. It may be desirable to obtain the place which the most people pass every day, as is the United Cigar Stores policy, or the company may be willing

to seek less public locations at a lower rent because of other facilities for attracting trade. Either extreme is unsafe. A great volume of sales will carry a large overhead, but without this large volume of sales the large overhead would be a constant drag. Again, low rent in a back street might be uneconomical because of the great opportunities for that store in a better location.

Every member of the chain organization should constantly be on the lookout for new locations. The man who sees opportunity first is the man who succeeds, and in many cases a desirable location means dollars to the chain which is first to come on the scene.

The whole question of location may be summed up in a few words. The site of the store should vary in distance from the traffic centers directly as the selling appeal of the chain. For example, men will not go out of their way to buy cigars, or candy, or razor blades, but they will go out of their way to get a pair of shoes or a suit of clothes. The first element in appeal is the nature of the product, whether it is a convenience article—that is, a necessity—or a shopping article—one which people will spend time to hunt for. The second is the price of the product, and the third is the publicity of the chain. The problem of the location of the store is almost inseparable from these topics, as will be shown later.

CHAPTER IV

THE MEMBER STORE

Outline

Size:
1. Large enough:
   (*a*) To hold stock.
   (*b*) To hold clerks.
   (*c*) To hold customers.
2. Results of conservation of space:
   (*a*) Saving in:
      (1) Rent.
      (2) Expense of cleaning.
   (*b*) Increased selling efficiency.
3. Special problems of smaller chains:
   (*a*) Necessity of keeping stock in stores where warehouse is lacking or too small.

Appearance of stores:
1. The store front:
   (*a*) Uniform:
      (1) In color.
      (2) In lettering.
   (*b*) Distinctive:
      (1) In appeal.
      (2) Easy to recognize.
2. The interior:
   (*a*) Equipment standardized:
      (1) Easy to equip new stores.
      (2) Restore old equipment damaged by fire, flood, etc.
   (*b*) A mathematical problem.
3. Arrangement of stock:
   (*a*) Most in demand:
      (1) Near front of store.
      (2) Nearest clerk.
   (*b*) Aisles wide.
   (*c*) Arrangement with regard to:
      (1) Movement of traffic.
      (2) Lighting.

Display:
1. Of stock:
   (*a*) In windows.
   (*b*) On counters.

2. Importance of price tags:
   (*a*) Counter display.
   (*b*) Manufacturers' helps.

Window display:

1. Difference in policies:
   (*a*) Centralized at headquarters.
   (*b*) Managers allowed to trim.
2. Importance of in selling.
3. Analyzing product for display purposes:
   (*a*) Influence of character of traffic.
   (*b*) Technique of window display.
   (*c*) Expense.
4. The window trimmer.
5. Teasers and window pasters.

Counter display:

1. Tie up merchandising with display.

CHAPTER IV

THE MEMBER STORE

The chain idea may be likened to an octopus. The central organization is the head and the branch stores are the tentacles. If one tentacle is cut off, another grows to take its place. So it is with the member stores. No one of them is vitally important for the organization, and if any store shows marked weakness it can immediately be amputated and another one started. This opening of new stores has become a real science in some chains. The process has been standardized so that nothing further is required than to start the machinery moving and, in consequence, on the appointed date the store is ready for occupancy by the selling force, complete down to the last detail.

A previous chapter has discussed the problems of locating the store. This chapter is a logical continuation of the same topic. The amount of floor space required for various types of stores, the fixtures, the display, the window trims, and the general appearance of the store are investigated. The stock and the arrangement by order of goods or by various departments is also discussed. The keynote which is again sounded is standardization. The nearer alike one store is to another the easier it is to make repairs, replenish stock, shift selling force, etc.

The success of a chain organization is almost directly proportional to the care it takes of detail, and the size, the equipment, and the arrangement of stock in the retail stores are of great importance. In a variety of ways, the store eliminates waste, and eliminated waste means increased profits. Furthermore, it is just as important for the small chain to start with standard equipment as it is for the large chains, even though alterations may cost more.

The Size of the Store.—The store should be just large enough to hold the stock, the clerks, and the customers. Every inch of space over these requirements is waste. For an example of the

utility of this practice, it is necessary to go back to the larger chains. In this case, the president of the United Cigar Stores, then George J. Whelan, decided that his stores must be compact. As a result, he saved rent, saved space, saved cleaning expenses, and brought practically every article for sale within reach of the clerk. The majority of the company's stores are one size, which makes it possible to use standard equipment in each store.

The owner of a small chain, or the owner of one retail store who is planning to branch out and establish one or more other stores, may ask: How shall I know how large to make my stores? And what shall I do with the rest of the space? You've shown me how valuable it is to have a location in the right place, but the only location I can get there is much too large for the business I expect to do. The chains which make a practice of owning their own realty make their own stores the regular size and rent the rest of the space to others. If the store is too large, get the owner to turn it into two stores and thereby make more rent.

There is one note of caution to be sounded here. A small chain cannot, as a rule, concentrate its stock in such tiny spaces as the larger chains which possess much quicker turnover and adequate means of supplying deficiencies in stock almost immediately. This is one of the problems of the small chain—to have ample stock yet achieve rapid turnover. Thus, a chain with two or three links may find it advisable to have slightly larger stores, since it must keep its warehouse in the stores themselves.

For example, there is a big variation in the size of chain grocery stores. Many of them are mere holes in the wall, using bins for shelves and representing a low investment. Other chains run larger stores and carry a much heavier stock. The grocery chain has had to meet the customer's desire for perishable goods. Not to carry vegetables, baked goods, etc. means a positive loss of trade and sales in the other staple dry groceries. A meat counter, for example, attracts a great deal of trade. The Sam. Seelig Stores, of Los Angeles, Cal., rents space in its stores to butter, fruit, and vegetable concerns. The purpose has been to eliminate all perishable goods and cling to staple groceries, but the value of the presence of these other merchandising activities in the store is recognized, and the result has been a succession of

chain concessions. Thus, a meat man may operate meat counters in several of these stores in one town.

A middle western grocery chain has sublet a corner in some of its larger stores to meat markets. In three cases it built two stores side by side, so that a meat market could be secured next door. A grocery, a meat market, and a drug store are all that are needed to form a small community. In one section this chain operated a grocery store next to a drug store. As a shrewd investment, the chain built a meat market next door and thereby secured enough additional rent to carry the overhead on its own store. It also increased trade, since people no longer had to go downtown.

There are other exceptions to the standard size for a store. Frequently stores in the heart of a large city must be larger than stores in the suburbs or than stores in smaller cities or towns. These are but the exceptions which prove the rule. Make stores as nearly alike in size as possible.

The Store Front.—Whenever a big chain secures a new site, arrangements are quickly made either for erecting or for altering the old store. When completed, the store has the same appearance, outside, as that of other stores of the chain.

A person can stand on the main street of almost any sizable city in the United States and, looking around, he can tell immediately what some of the stores within the radius of his vision are. For example, on the opposite corner he sees a store finished in red, with a shield beside the lettering. Clearly, this is a United Cigar Stores branch. Farther down the street is a much larger and broader red sign, with prominent gilt letters. Nearby, is a white store with script letters on the windows, gold letters on a white background over the store, and a pancake griddle in the window. Everyone would recognize these stores. But, in addition, there are any quantity of local chains which have their own color schemes, well recognized in the communities in which they operate.

A uniform store front is an asset which has been proved valuable. Coming into a new community, the store finds patrons among those to whom its name is familiar or who have actually bought at its stores in other localities. Like the railroad station, the member chain store becomes a landmark.

This uniformity of appearance is nothing more than the idea of the signboard standardized. The store is recognized by the familiar color, which can be seen much farther than the name. Red is a favorite color in grocery stores. The Piggly Wiggly stores are painted blue, brown, and yellow with Piggly Wiggly in white letters on a blue background, and "All Over the World" printed beneath.

Not only is the color scheme of the exterior the same but the fronts and entrances wherever possible conform to the standard. In other words, every store in a chain is as nearly like the rest as possible.

Equipment.—The analogy can be carried out as far as the interiors of the stores are concerned, except that here uniformity is not so much a matter of advertising importance as of expense, replacement etc. The store should make its own equipment if possible. The larger chains do, and find that it pays. They also keep extra equipment on hand in case a new store opens, a fire occurs in an old one, etc. When the Federal Bakery at San Antonio, Tex., was ruined by the flood of 1920, in five days new equipment had arrived from Davenport, Iowa, to take its place. In a chain such as this, or the United Cigar Stores, or some grocery chains, it is possible to standardize equipment almost absolutely. Once given the amount of space in the store and the amount of goods to be carried, and the equipment is a mathematical problem of shelves, counters, etc.

Figure 3*A* illustrates the standard store design of the units in a Piggly Wiggly self service chain.

But when it is a question of stores, the size of which may vary a great deal, such as a five-and-ten-cent store, it is more a problem of standardizing units. For example, the counters may be uniform although their number may vary in the stores, according to size.

Figure 4 shows the interior of a Federal Bakery in Knoxville, Tenn. Here the local manager has used the standard equipment as a basis, and for $12 bought some laths and artificial flowers and added the extras himself. Note the display of goods and the compact arrangement, with just room enough in front of the counter for customers and in back of them for the sales girls to move around without interfering with each other.

Standardizing Member Stores.—It is possible to apply a policy of standardization to store and equipment in almost every case.

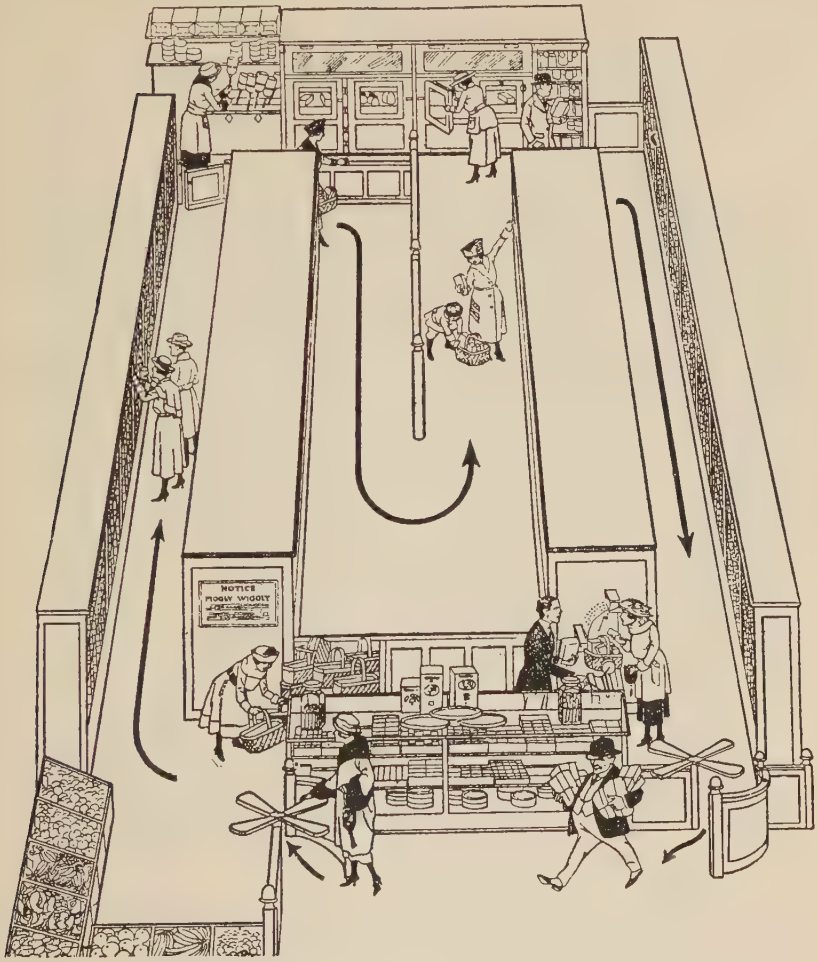


FIG. 3A.—Standard design of each of 600 units in a chain of self-service grocery stores.

The following standards are used by the Metropolitan Five- to Fifty-cent Stores, Inc.

Store fronts must always be red all over, because red means something to a public trained to the chain store idea.

Signs are made of wood or of metal, painted standard red with narrow black molding at the edges. On this is an accepted style of gilded letters, all of uniform height, except the "to" and Inc.." which are smaller.

Awnings are standard khaki color.

The effective show window should have a floor about 18 inches above the sidewalk level, and glass should never be more than 8 feet high. Any space above 8 feet is difficult to trim, and cannot be seen by observers. Windows more than 4 feet in depth require too much merchandise and labor to trim them.

Panel backs are coated with white enamel, to give life to display and to avoid conflicting with colors in displays.

Deep set-in doorways and island windows are avoided, on the theory that it should be made as easy as possible for people to enter the store.

Flooring for vestibule or entranceways is covered with small white hexagonal tiles, which are reasonable in cost, and easy to keep clean.

Ceilings of vestibules and show windows are painted white to aid lighting scheme.

A minimum width of 4 feet between counter tops meet fire and labor requirements.

The standard aisle or booth counter is 7 feet 8 inches wide by 20 feet long, with a 14 inch entrance, and an 18-inch working space in the center.

The narrow booth counter is 6 feet 3 inches by 20 feet long, with the same sized entrance and working space.

All counter tops are made flat as this suits the greatest number of department displays. Where a sloping top is required a false bottom may be used.

Counter and window display fixtures are standard. For jewelry display there are special velvet-covered floor pieces and dividers, with special upright display stands for rings, necklaces, and bracelets.

A standard method of lighting and lighting fixtures has been worked out.

Stock bins have been standardized as to size, the storage space measuring 18 inches high, 4 feet long, and 2 feet deep. Double bins are made 4 feet wide with a center division formed by wire netting.

Other items of equipment and arrangement are standardized as fast as investigation proves their value to the store.

While each chain may have special problems to solve, it should be possible to standardize much of the equipment and store fixtures. This would result in lowered initial cost, interchangeability of parts for repairs, and greater similarity in layout.

Arrangement of Store.—Where shall the merchandise be placed? Experience has worked out rather definite positions for most merchandise. As a general rule, the merchandise most in demand is nearest the clerk. In the grocery store these articles are directly in back of the counter. In a store with a number of departments the goods most in demand are at the front of the store.

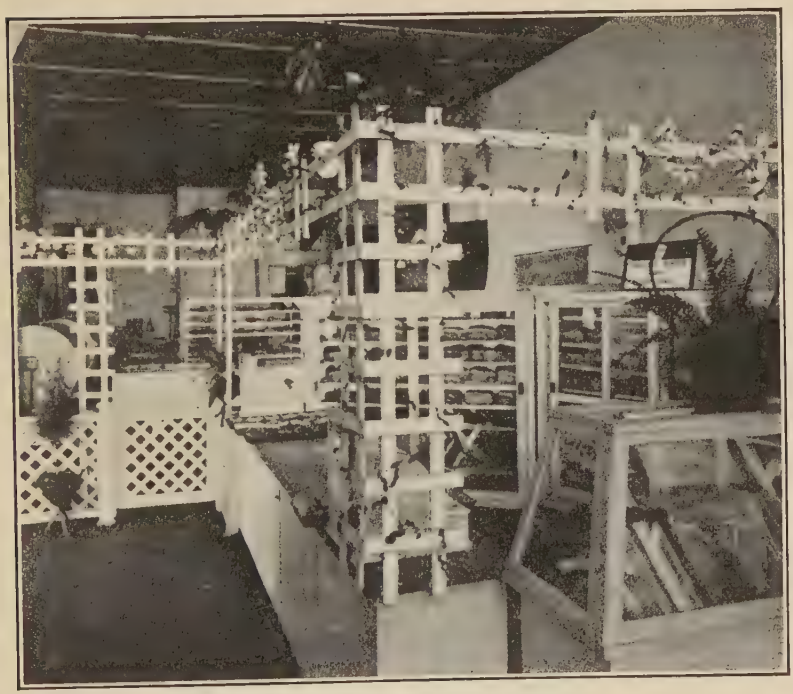


FIG. 4.—Interior of Federal bakery.

This rule, however, is capable of exceptions. Mr. Kells, manager of the Metropolitan Stores, Inc., says:

You have to know just what goods will sell in certain locations. Jewelry, for instance, will not sell in the basement, but must be well up towards the front door with plenty of light. Men will not hunt for things; therefore, their department must be easily accessible. Hardware is in the basement, music to the rear, quick sellers to the front.

If it is necessary to have aisles, these should be wide enough to avoid overcrowding. Narrow aisles tend to decrease sales of goods on display at the point of congestion. The arrangement of goods in one unit of a chain should be the same as in other units. In the Piggly Wiggly stores there is a place for every bar of laundry soap and every bottle of ketchup. Everything is arranged for convenience, with the heaviest goods nearest the exit. One hundred and eighty-five customers an hour can be handled easily.

A. L. Townsend says, "at least 50 per cent of the success of an institution, large or small, can be attributed to the stage management of the store and of the merchandise." In the chain, it is the reproduction of this efficient stage management in many stores that does so much towards standardizing sales and profits.

A sales manager of a chain store system is quoted as saying:

> Give me a certain line of drugs and toilet preparations. I will stock up ten average drug stores of the old régime and then build ten competitive stores of the new type. The latter will inevitably get the business—get it in a big way—despite the fact that the other shops keep the same identical line. The reason lies in the method of display, in the spectacular stage dress of the store, and the hundred and one details of service supplied to these stores.

The Fifth Avenue store of the F. W. Woolworth Company is one in which "stage" arrangement has been carried to the *nth* degree. Everything in this store has been arranged with an eye to effect. Ribbons, jewelry, and candy are at the front. The store contains 34 departments, two more than usual, the two extra ones being the light lunch and the soda fountain. Several departments are duplicated on the main floor and in the basement, on the theory that if customers pass an article on one floor they will buy it on the other.

J. B. Levey, general sales manager of the United Shirt Shops, says in an article in the *Haberdasher:*

> It is an established fact that the movement of customers in a shop affects the sale of merchandise. The fixtures are placed accordingly. In entering a store, we usually adhere to the law of traffic regulations, and keep moving to the right. Points of sales vantage are usually about 10 to 12 feet on the right at the entrance of the store and on the

right center, where you can probably sell more merchandise than in any other part. Another good point of sales vantage is the extreme rear of the store, where people, having reached the turning point, naturally stop and look around. Personally, I believe the best selling spot in the store is where the incoming and outgoing traffics criss-cross. That point is a few feet from the entrance, on the right-hand side. Usually there is some confusion when people are walking in and out all the time, and it causes them to move more slowly than ordinarily, thus affording another opportunity to glance around.

All goods should be priced carefully and plainly. If the goods are on shelves, the price should be directly underneath, or, if in trays, as in a variety store, the trays should be marked. Articles of one kind should be by themselves, not hit-or-miss anywhere, as was once common in retail stores. If a woman wants breakfast food in a grocery store, she will see all the different brands and kinds grouped in one location, and that location she knows from habit.

Display.—If a store wants to sell its goods, it should put them where people will see them, and make them look attractive. This, like many other chain store principles, is nothing more than ordinary retail salesmanship. All goods cannot be displayed in the window, but all, or nearly all, of them can be displayed on the counters. This, of course, is not an easy matter. A poor display repels rather than attracts. But it has long been known that there is no easier way of selling goods than by efficient methods of display.

Take, for example, the five-and-ten-cent store. Once in a while, trays may be found that are out of order and messy, but one may be sure they will not remain that way long. It will be noted that counters are filled, but never junky, and that shopworn goods are surprisingly rare. Nor are there any rusty goods on the hardware counter. Probably display sells more articles in the five-and-ten-cent stores than the name of the brand or the need for the object. People buy what attracts them on the counters. The price is negligible, and, as explained elsewhere, the five-and-ten-cent stores pursue a rigorous policy of letting the goods sell themselves—by display.

The Piggly Wiggly Company follows the same policy, and here the customers themselves select the goods they desire.

Therefore, of necessity, only those goods are sold which are in demand and, consequently, on display.

Note the Federal Bakery interior in Fig. 4, and it will be seen that baked goods are plainly and attractively displayed in racks.

Window Displays.—All chain authorities agree on the importance of the window display. Some chains centralize window dressing at headquarters and pay large sums to display experts for their services. Other chains delegate the duty of trimming windows to the store managers, who are thus allowed some scope for originality. The former method insures an even standard of excellence throughout the country, while the latter allows more individuality and initiative. The United Cigar Stores have their corps of window dressers at headquarters.

Location and the window display take the place of advertising for the majority of chain stores. The location brings them the traffic, and the window trims attract the trade to the inside. Some corporations employ several chain experts, and keep them traveling over the country, visiting the several branches and teaching the managers the fundamentals of good window trims. Others do the same thing by mail. The principal features of a good window trim may be observed by referring to Fig. 5. Following are the instructions to managers in regard to this window:

In presenting the above window display featuring "Bringing Home the Bakin," your attention is called to the holiday atmosphere which surrounds the entire display (for December). The holly background sets off the window attractively and conveys the holiday spirit. The large centerpiece featuring the trade-mark is finished in seven attractive colors. The display card has been handled in poster effect, so that the striking colors will stop the passing crowds. Note how the two smaller cards tie up with the centerpiece, and carry out the "Bringing Home the Bakin" message. The old window trick of tying up the products with the display always commands attention, because the eye naturally follows lines. In this particular display, note how easily you can work out this idea by drawing baby ribbon from the packages right to your products.

Now, what is found in this window display?

1. A seasonal atmosphere, in this case Christmas, and shown by the holly.

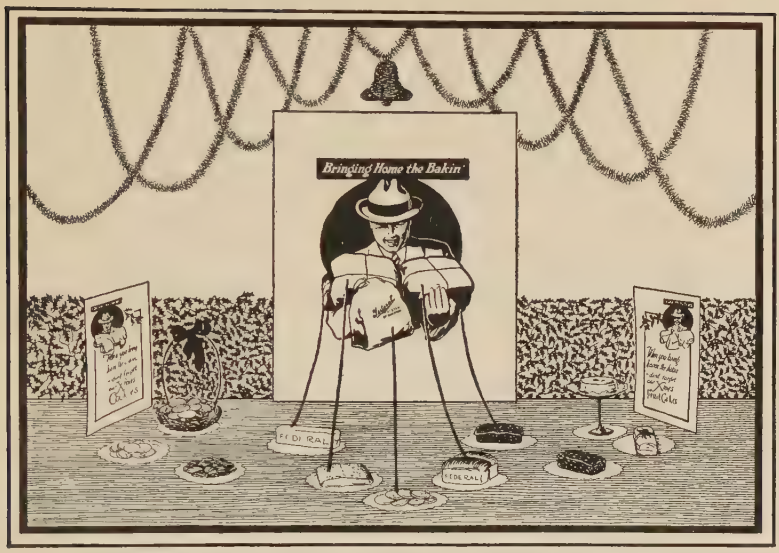


FIG. 5.—Tying up window display with the product.

FIG. 6.—Japanese window display.

2. An attention-attracting feature—in this case the poster effect of the display card.

3. Balance, secured by flanking the big card with smaller cards.

4. Products tied up with the display by ribbons.

5. The trade-mark featured, which is good advertising.

Another window display of the Federal Bakeries is shown in Fig. 6.

1. The seasonal atmosphere here is changed to a national atmosphere, that is, Japanese.

2. The center display on the white background forms the feature which attracts the attention of passing traffic.

3. The fans on either side furnish the balance.

4. The product, in this case Tokio bread, is set off by the fans, which form a neat background for it.

5. The trade-mark, "Tokio," coincides with the atmosphere, and is featured on the poster, on the fans, and on the lanterns.

Note that nothing but Tokio bread is shown in this display, while in Fig. 5 a variety of products is shown.

There are two kinds of window display: the general display of products and the special-feature display. In the general display, some particular article may have greater prominence, but if the selling effort is to be directed to one article, it is a better plan to devote all the window space to this product. Of course, this does not always hold true, but depends on the nature of the product.

Take a shoe store, for example. It would do little good to feature some particular shoe, since individual tastes differ so widely. Therefore, show a large variety at a scale of prices. But in a drug store, where even the smallest stores carry more than 3,500 items and the large stores a great many more, a feature window display should be used. It may feature a brand of products, or a single product. In city stores, toilet products are more frequently featured than medicines. In small towns and country stores, medicines with well-known names are featured. One large advertising agency says:

> The question of whether a window can or cannot be obtained from a given druggist is largely a combination of the volume of sale the medicine commands plus the profit offered the druggist. If the sale is reasonably large and the profits fair, the druggists will use windows for these products at the height of the selling season.

In other words, if the store sells one product, such as shoes, hats, etc., it should show a variety of styles and makes in the window trim. But if it sells a large variety of products, such as groceries or drugs, a succession of window trims should each feature a particular brand or product.

Coordination of Windows and Advertising.—Chains which make a practice of advertising will naturally have to consider methods of coordinating advertising with window displays. The J. C. Penney Company has created a special department of window trimming under the supervision of the advertising department. During the early years of the company's growth trimming was left entirely to the local managers. It was felt, however, that suggestions from an expert trimmer at the main office would be of great value.

Three different sized windows—small, medium, and large—are planned so that they will fit in as closely as possible with the characteristic Penney windows. This practice enables the store in the West to use the same trim as the store in the East. The individual store manager is still allowed to change and modify the standard trim to fit local conditions. The method of distributing the trimming information is as follows, according to *Women's Wear:*

> The specially prepared windows at headquarters will be dressed in their entirety, and photographs will be taken. Afterwards the merchandise will be removed and pictures taken of the skeletons, showing fixtures used in the window and collective and individual units. Pictures will be sent out accompanied by detailed descriptions.
>
> Special attention will be given to trims for the weekly selling plans of the company, such as for leather and fancy goods, vacation goods, straw hats, etc. The company plans to have trims changed twice a week, as it is felt new trims are a great deal more effective than ones that have been left in the window for more than a few days.

Pasters, Packages, and Counter Displays.—Pasters put on the window are a cheap and an inexpensive method of attracting attention, particularly when stores are putting on special sales nearly every day. Grocery stores and drug stores frequently use these, the pasters themselves, of course, being furnished by headquarters. Window pasters attract immediate attention, whether price or product is featured.

Figure 7 shows how the window paster was used in the same Tokio campaign previously illustrated. On Friday and Saturday previous to the campaign the paster was used as a "teaser" and was replaced by the regular paster the following week. A paster is primarily used to attract attention. People look at the paster before they look at the window trim, as a general rule. In a city where the chain maintains several stores, the use of these pasters in each store is sure to arouse interest.

Packages are used as displays, inside and out. More and more manufacturers are coming to realize the value of the display of

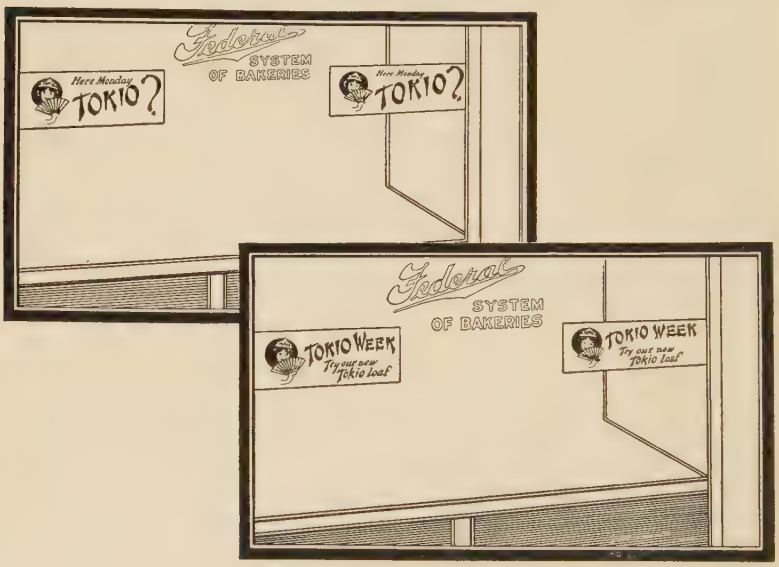


Fig. 7.—Window pasters.

their own products. Consequently, the designing of packages has become almost an art. In the drug store, for example, many articles are sold solely by the package. It is especially true also in the grocery business that packages sell a great many goods, and hence the value of displaying well-known packages in window trims, etc.

In the Piggly Wiggly stores, as explained previously, the packages are merely arranged on the shelves and the customer allowed to take her pick. Where the chain manufactures its own private

brands in competition with advertised brands, and where it does no advertising itself, it must rely almost wholly upon its package display for selling the goods. If the goods are out of sight, no one will ask for them, and, if in sight, the number of people who ask is in proportion to the display value of the package.

Some chains make a habit of using counter cards, either furnished by them or by the manufacturer, who often finds it much to his advantage to cooperate with the merchandising efforts of the various chains dealing in his products.

Show cards can frequently be used to good effect either in the windows or on the counters. In the ordinary store such a card would read something like this: "Felt hats reduced to $3," or simply "Lux 10 cents." The sales department of the chain store organization ordinarily makes the message on the show card interesting enough to attract passers-by and customers. If the reduction in the price of the article is important enough to feature, some sales arguments can be featured also.

The object of all display is to attract. Therefore, make displays attractive. The more people are brought into the store, the more sales can be made. Good display is merely another aspect of good merchandising. When advertising in a newspaper the advertisement may or may not be read by the prospective customer. A far larger proportion look at the display material in the store windows by which they pass.

Appearance.—The chain store should and can excel in general appearance. Not only the exterior, the interior, the equipment, and the stock can be standardized but the lighting and the general effect of neatness. The Piggly Wiggly stores have done away with window trims. The windows look directly into the store, thus making the goods in the store serve as window trim. The stores rely on their general appearance of attractiveness, as well as the novelty of their idea, to draw in customers. The United Cigar Stores, according to President Wise, notice an almost immediate influx of customers when it is possible to keep the doors open, and this is noticeable in congested districts especially. He also stresses the value of night lighting.

As a matter of fact, there is nothing which attracts the average customer more than cleanliness and neatness. If a chain had a monopoly on the trade in a district through its price appeal,

cleanliness might matter less, but where there is such keen competition between chains every factor which lends attractiveness to the store is exceedingly important. In a grocery store, for example, where the majority of the customers are women, this factor looms up. Broken boxes, sawdust, scraps of paper on the floor, flies, all of these detract from the store appearance.

Clean windows are another point to stress. "Were your windows clean?" is one of the first questions asked by the Regal Shoe Company when one of its stores begins to fall off in sales. Clean paint is still another point. Fresh merchandise, no dust, orderly arrangement, each one of these factors has an incalculable but important part in helping to make the retail links of the chain successful.

In one block in New York there were seven places selling candy. A new chain candy store moved in. One of its competitors was selling goods of its own make, trade-marked, of course, but employing no special methods of selling, no novel containers, etc. Another slightly higher-grade store of the same general nature had a shop neat and clean, but with nothing particularly remarkable. Candy was sold in two drug stores and three tobacco stores. When the new store moved in, it stressed appearance at once. The windows were made bigger and brighter, each box on display was opened, prices were plainly marked, all showcases were uniform and so placed as to obtain the best display of the contents. All containers were designed to suit the brand of candy with vivid colors and attractive designs. Names and prices shown in the window were repeated inside.

To close this section, the statement of the policy of the Kroger Grocery & Baking Company in regard to store appearance is quoted:

1. Fresh paint—plain name.
2. Clean windows.
3. Clean interior.
4. Serviceable counters and equipment.
5. Small, well-assorted, packaged stock.
6. Signs on windows—fresh daily.
7. Lots of plain price tickets.
8. No cluttered-up corners.
9. No goods on floor—everything in boxes or on shelves.
10. Neat, business-like, and polite clerk.
11. Special leader daily.

Conclusions.—This chapter has been devoted to the physical aspects of the member store. The location of the store and its physical appearance are inseparably connected. After finding the right location, it is necessary to let passers-by know what the store has to offer. Hence the enormous publicity value of the standardized front lies in the fact that its mere appearance on a city or suburban street signifies to the public the exact information and reputation which that chain has made for itself. The appearance of the individual independent store is of value to that store alone, but the appearance of the individual chain store is of value to every other store in that chain, at present established or prospected for the future.

Throughout this chapter the attempt has been made to lay emphasis on the standardization of all the physical aspects of the store, of its exterior and interior, of the size and the arrangement of the stock for the best convenience of the clerk and the public. By whatever methods it is carried out, the following principle is universally applicable: "Make the member stores as attractive as possible, inside and out, and results will be commensurate with the effort."

CHAPTER V

PURCHASING

Outline

Buying channels:
1. Tendency of all large chains to buy direct from:
   (*a*) Manufacturers.
   (*b*) Growers.
2. Some indirect buying through:
   (*a*) Jobber.
   (*b*) Wholesaler.
   (*c*) Broker.

Advantages of purchasing direct:
1. Saves jobbers' discount.
2. Secures direct delivery.

Disadvantages:
1. Purchasing direct of articles:
   (*a*) In small quantities.
   (*b*) Of fluctuating price.
   (*c*) Keeping qualities not assured.
   (*d*) Little-known brands.
2. Necessary to assume carrying charges:
   (*a*) And expense of distribution.

Purchasing terms:
1. Cash:
   (*a*) Saves further discount
   (*b*) Saves bookkeeping.
2. Future dating.

Purchasing in advance:
1. Depends on:
   (*a*) Nature of the product:
      (1) Much less danger in staples.
   (*b*) Policy of the company.
2. Taking advantage of seasonal cuts:
   (*a*) Ordinarily a time of year when product is sure to be cheaper than at others.

The purchasing organization:
1. Personnel:
   (*a*) Chief buyer:
      (1) Assistant buyers.

2. Duties:
   (*a*) To purchase goods for entire chain.
   (*b*) To purchase salable goods.
   (*c*) To purchase goods on the lowest terms for the highest quality.
3. Requisites of chain store buyer:
   (*a*) An expert in a certain line:
      (1) Knows sources.
      (2) Qualities.
      (3) Price trends.
   (*b*) Wide circle of acquaintances.
   (*c*) Goes and looks for products where they are for sale.
4. Desirability of maintaining purchasing agents in various parts of country and abroad.

Buying policies:

1. Chains where all buying is done at headquarters:
   (*a*) Choice of goods and products wholly in hands of purchasing department.
   (*b*) Local managers with advisory voice in choice of articles.
2. Chains where some products are bought locally by manager.
3. Chains where purchasing is done by member stores.

Buyer and manufacturer:

1. Possibility of cooperation.

CHAPTER V

PURCHASING

The controversy which has gone on for so long over the ability and the practice of chain stores in selling goods at lower prices than their independent competitors has revolved about the question of purchasing. The larger the organization, and the larger the orders which it can place, the better the price which can be obtained from the manufacturer. Jobbers were at one time prominent in organizing and helping retail chains, but no class now is more outspoken as a whole in denunciation of the chains than jobbers. Just as soon as a chain organization feels itself strong enough, it stops buying from jobbers, wherever possible, and goes straight to the manufacturer or grower. Some chains are able to purchase the whole output of factories.

The ability to buy the right goods at the right prices is one of the first and most important requisites of chain store success. This ability, in the great majority of cases, is gained by a centralized purchasing organization and a trained staff of buyers. In fact, as mentioned previously, a central purchasing organization is one of the fundamental requisites of chain store success. The larger the organization the more important and the more complicated do the duties of this purchasing department become. In this chapter, it is intended to discuss the general purchasing policies of chain organizations with specific reference to some of the most common policies. The accounting required in the purchasing department has been developed completely in a following chapter.

Buying Channels.—Generally speaking, the chain store buyer can purchase either directly—from the manufacturer, grower, etc.—or he can buy indirectly—from the jobber, wholesaler, broker, etc. In general, the chain store prefers to buy direct, because in this way the jobbers' margin, which in many cases is as low as 2 per cent, can be saved. Even 2 per cent is a large

consideration when several carloads of one item are used in the course of a year. Naturally, the chain stores work to get on the direct selling list of all the manufacturers. This is not an easy proposition. Manufacturers, under the veiled or open threat of jobbers to discontinue their lines, hesitate. They are uncertain as to the continued prosperity of the chain store and fear to find themselves shut out from the channels of distribution in case of failure. This is especially the case where branded goods are concerned. The manufacturers of Kellogg's Corn Flakes had a famous controversy over selling direct to chain stores.

As chain stores have become more powerful and the old-line jobbers have become weaker, conditions have changed so that now practically all chain stores are able to buy everything direct. The inability to buy direct and the consequent entry of some chain stores into manufacturing will be discussed later.

So much for direct purchasing. The attitude of the manufacturer has also changed. He prefers to create consumer demand for his product by judicious advertising rather than to shut himself out of a sure and steady retail outlet.

This, of course, does not mean that the jobber has been eliminated. Frequently articles are needed which are used in such small quantities that it is found better policy to let the jobber carry the risk and pay him for it. This is also true of articles the price of which is likely to fluctuate violently. In some cases the chain store prefers to let the jobber carry the risk.

The ordinary policy, it should be repeated, is to buy direct. But the following is the experience of one medium-sized grocery chain. These people usually buy canned goods direct from the canning companies. But often they deal with a canned-goods broker, who acts as the canners' salesman. One broker, for example, sells them whatever they want from two Michigan canneries, and also represents the account of a sal-soda firm, a large pea-bean grower, a peanut growers' organization, etc. Naturally, this broker, with his varied lines of goods to sell, can afford to get around to his trade oftener than a representative of only one house. In addition, this man sells them beet sugar when they want it. They could buy beet sugar direct by telegraph, but as long as it does not cost any more to buy through a

broker it is a big advantage to have a broker handle the business. He takes an interest in them, wants to see them make money, and frequently gives advice as to market changes that are well worth while.

The channels of purchase are more or less determined by the policy of the chain management. The Kroger Grocery & Baking Company, for example, one of the largest grocery chains, made it a cardinal point of their policy to buy direct, not only from manufacturers but from growers. Other chains will buy from wholesalers and jobbers where they consider the price is low enough, but these are ordinarily the small- and medium-sized chains.

Analysis of Purchasing Sources.—A questionnaire investigation of certain chain practices made by Wadsworth H. Mullen, and reported in the Harvard Business Review, throws a great deal of light on the amount of direct buying done by chains in the grocery, drug, shoe, and tobacco fields. Returns from eight of the larger grocery chains showed that none purchased crackers or bread from middlemen. In the case of no item were more than four chains dependent upon middlemen for part of their supplies. Even where four chains bought of the middlemen, two or more of them bought in insignificant quantities.

In the case of the drug chains, little reliance is placed upon the jobber. Novelties are purchased direct more often than staple articles, probably because such items are outside of the regular drug field and manufacturers are more willing to deal direct with the chain as an outlet.

Only a small fraction of the purchases of six large shoe chains investigated were made through middlemen, in every case less than 10 per cent of total supplies.

The tobacco field, like the grocery field, has always been considered a jobber's stronghold as far as independent dealers are concerned. As far as the large tobacco chains are concerned, however, the jobber has been practically eliminated.

The "Five and Tens."—Nowhere is purchasing more important than in the so-called five-and-ten-cent stores, where the ability of the store to stock articles is more or less dependent on the price at which these articles are purchased. During the war, all the large chain store organizations found it necessary to

abandon the 10-cent limit, with the exception of the Woolworth chain. This was due entirely to inability to purchase a large enough variety of goods to retail within the 10-cent limit. And the success of a five-and-ten-cent store chain is determined by the volume of sales it can attain.

Woolworth was able to maintain its price level throughout the war by the enormous volume of sales. For example, in one year they sold nearly 90,000,000 pounds of candy, enough to fill a train of freight cars 24 miles long. This was not inferior candy. But the enormous volume of sales enabled the manufacturer to make a profit on pure candy even at the low prices. Illustrating this point further, in one year Woolworth sold more than 9,000,000 yards of curtain material, 350,000 barrels of glassware, 20,000,000 pieces of enamelware—enough to load a freight train 7½ miles long. In 1918, the year of the influenza epidemic, they sold 54,000,000 handkerchiefs at the regular price limit. Despite the fact that the cost of raw material kept rising rapidly, this enormous turnover allowed sales to be made at a profit.

As the Woolworth Company says:

> The Woolworth stores buy their goods where goods are to be had, and are ruled by the same economic laws of manufacture and selling that govern every other retailer. The more of a thing that can be produced the lower the price can be.

They go on to illustrate their point and the example is well worth quoting, although it has been used before.

One of the Woolworth buyers saw a ring which retailed at 50 cents. He thought this ring would go well in the Woolworth stores and accordingly approached the manufacturer.

"Absurd!" was the manufacturer's comment, "I can't make that ring so you can sell it at 10 cents. Anyway—I am selling plenty as it is—more than 450 dozen this year."

The buyer merely said that he could sell a "great quantity" and by dint of persuasion got the manufacturer to try the experiment. During the first year 5,000 gross were handled, or 60,000 dozen. This is exactly the point. If the manufacturer only made 450 dozen, he had to get 50 cents at retail, but if he made

60,000 dozen the economies he could effect in manufacturing, standardization of processes, etc. offset the lowered retail price.

Most retailers base their selling price on the basis of the purchase and overhead cost, and this same policy is followed out by the five-and-ten-cent store chains.

Purchasing Terms.—J. C. Penney says the first principle of merchandising is to go where the article is for sale at first hand and then to offer cash. Here is another reason for chain store purchasing efficiency: the chain store pays cash. In this way it obtains a further reduction in price by discounting bills promptly.

In 1921, the Kroger Grocery & Baking Company advertised in the produce papers, stating that it was in the market for carload lots of apples, potatoes, onions, cabbage, sweet potatoes, peaches, melons, and oranges, bought direct or consigned by grower or shipper.

The American Stores Company has also been steadily advertising along this line. The Kroger advertisement reads in part as follows:

> The more than 950 Kroger stores form a direct outlet, Mr. Grower and Mr. Shipper, over our counters to the consumer. Our tremendous outlet will make a steady market for you.

The grower has the option of accepting cash or consigning at the highest market price.

In some cases a chain is given the privilege of future dating. That is, the bill is dated several weeks later than the date on which the delivery of the goods is made. Frequently the goods are already sold before the bill comes.

Chain stores have found that buying for cash is as advantageous as selling for cash. It insures prompt service and delivery from manufacturers as well as a saving in discounts and bookkeeping for the chain.

Buying Ahead.—Whether it is advisable to purchase far in advance is still a moot point in chain store operation. There are arguments on both sides. Generally speaking, however, there is much less risk in contracting ahead for staple articles than for products in which demand fluctuates or totally disappears.

For example, it has never been the policy of the J. C. Penney Company to buy far ahead. Its policy is to buy frequently and for cash. It holds that it is no part of the merchandising function to speculate in goods values. It might be possible to make large profits and it might not, but, in any event, it would mean altering the present cost-plus price policy. As the system is arranged now, the stores turn their stock on an average of five times, and, when any major change in price reaches them, the stock is already sold. Neither branches nor stores carry stock above current needs. This naturally means that there are no special sales.

A certain grocery chain which never makes merchandise contracts for a year ahead, and seldom buys even staple goods in carload lots, has evolved the following system. Suppose it buys laundry soap in 100-case purchases. At the same time it stipulates that delivery shall be made in 10-case lots, and by the time the whole has been received it has been nearly sold. It always tries, however, to keep from 30 to 60 days' supply on hand.

If a chain overloads, it is usually in a far better position, because of its numerous retail outlets, to unload than is its independent competitor. Yet the evils of overloading are just as apparent. *Men's Wear* publishes an article showing how the chain men's furnishings shops overexpanded and overloaded with merchandise. Contrary to many of the chains, the product which they sell is not a necessity, in the strict sense of the word. A buyer's strike will hold up sales indefinitely, and this is exactly what happened. Where the Penney Company came through the period of storm and stress with comparatively small losses, some of these chain furnishings shops had large reserves of merchandise and also had commitments a long way ahead. Because of the nature of their trade, their stock proved unwieldy. Sixty per cent of their business was in shirts and the public was absolutely indifferent to shirts.

Buying far enough ahead to insure supply in adequate quantity is necessary. Buying ahead too far is dangerous. There is a proper middle distance which experience will determine with a fair amount of exactitude.

One grocery chain, the purchasing policy of which is typical of many of the medium-sized chains, says:

We buy canned peas, corn, tomatoes, etc. in large enough quantities to last us through most of the year. Dry groceries, like beans, flour, cornmeal, sugar, etc., are bought just from week to week. We probably make a couple of turnovers a month on some of these items, whereas with certain canned goods we have to carry them in stock a whole year before they sell. Canned red pie cherries, rhubarb, and spinach, for instance, are packed in the early summer but do not sell in any big quantity until the following spring, when people get a touch of spring fever and want these three spring-like items.

This brings up another point—seasonal purchases. It is true that, in certain lines of merchandise, it is possible to predict in normal times a particular month or months when the price will be especially low. In canned goods, for example, the price will be low right after the canning season, and, if the chain wishes to purchase the output and store it away, it is possible to reckon approximately whether this policy will prove profitable or not. This problem, however, is not confined exclusively to the chain store but is merely one of the general rules of purchasing—to buy when the article is cheapest.

The Buyer.—The buyer in any organization is an important individual, but in the chain his position is particularly prominent. But whereas in a small organization a buyer often has to turn his attention to many dissimilar articles, in the larger chains the buyer is an expert in a particular line. He knows the manufacturers of that article, he knows the sources of supply, the channels of trade, and the market trends. That is, by a careful study of the market, together with a study of business conditions in general, he knows fairly well what the market will do. He usually belongs to local and national organizations of purchasing agents, and subscribes for publications devoted to purchasing as well as for trade papers of the industries from which he gets his supplies. He has a wide range of acquaintances and is an exceedingly wide-awake business man. Good buyers are always in demand.

All purchases in the chain are made by the buyer or purchasing agent, as a general rule. Local managers, however, are often given an opportunity to pick up perishable goods from local sources and sell them. Grocery chains often do this.

To return to the buyer, he has, depending on the size of the chain, several assistant buyers under him who are all experts in different lines. The five-and-ten-cent chains, for example, have large staffs of buyers, each experienced in a particular line.

The main buying office of the J. C. Penney Company is in New York, with branches at St. Louis and St. Paul. The plan is to provide a pipe line from the sources of supply direct to the distributing stations. As New York is the center of so much of the buying activity, many chains, like the Penney organization, maintain offices there for purchasing purposes.

It may be necessary to maintain buyers at distant points. Clothing chains, for example, might have buyers in New York and Chicago, the centers of the garment trade. They might even have buyers in London or Paris. Shoe chains that do not manufacture their own product would probably have a buyer stationed in some shoe-manufacturing center.

At all events, the chain store buyer goes out to buy and does not remain at home waiting for salesmen to visit him.

Buying Policies.—How far may the buyer act on his own judgment and to what extent must he follow the policy of the store? There are many variations. In general, however, some such policy as the following is used:

1. For staple sellers a certain rate of turnover has been established. By keeping records, it is known just about what quantity of an article of a given quality and a given style is needed. Therefore, the buyer is authorized to keep a comfortable margin ahead of requirements.

2. With novelties and new products, the store manager is often given a certain amount and told to feature it. As results come in, the buyer is informed and from these results he makes corresponding purchases.

Some buyers may have more authority, some less. If a buyer could prove to the management of a chain that he had an opportunity to buy up the product of an entire plant for a year and also could show how that product could be moved, in all probability he would be authorized to go ahead and make the purchase.

Some of the larger chains permit local purchasing in some cases, as has been mentioned before. In the big cities where there is more than one store, an assistant buyer may be sent out to pick

up articles out of stock to tide the stores over until shipments arrive from the company. One company is known to allow its store managers to buy from traveling men. The store manager may be allowed to purchase any extraordinary bargains, provided he is sure he can dispose of the merchandise thus procured.

Branded Goods vs. Private Brands.—The question of private brands is discussed elsewhere, but a few words are necessary here in relation to the buying policy. The purchases of a chain are made strictly according to the criterion of what goods it is going to be able to sell, and at what prices. That is, the needs and desires of the community to which it caters are paramount. If there is a call for advertised goods, the chains endeavor to satisfy this call. At one time there was much substituting in chains, but this policy, when found unprofitable, was abandoned, and, instead, the policy was adopted of selling the customer what he wanted.

Some communities demand advertised brands; others prefer the larger quantities possible to obtain from the chain's private brands. About one-third of the sales made by the large grocery chains are estimated to be under their own private brand, drug chains sell about 10 per cent under private brand and shoe chains 75 per cent.

The buyer of a five-and-ten-cent chain is said to divide his purchases more or less as follows:

1. Advertised lines. Such articles catch the eye of the consumer immediately on entering the store and make prestige for the five-and-ten-cent company. More and more advertised articles are finding their way to their counters, owing to the profitable results obtained by manufacturers from this easy method of sampling (discussed in the following section).

2. Articles which will give the impression of a great deal for the money. These have been purchased by the chain at bargain prices, with this end in view.

3. Special-feature articles made to draw trade.

Buyers should constantly look for good prices, but it is a mistake to imagine that quality should be sacrificed. A chain store ordinarily has to maintain a certain standard. In fact, a great part of its trade is obtained from a recognition of that standard of

quality. The buyers must keep this point in mind all the time, whether they are purchasing branded or unbranded goods.

Some chains, such as the Piggly Wiggly, confine their purchases entirely to branded goods. They prefer to let the manufacturers assume the selling effort. Other firms, such as Penney, buy only staples—no fancy or unusual goods. Their appeal is directed to the middle class, and they do not care to deviate from the policy of carrying only goods in ordinary demand. In shoes, for example, they do not carry "double A."

Many chains have the policy of selling branded goods and private brands as well. In fact, this seems to be the modern trend—to allow the customer to decide what the store shall sell. This policy, of course, is directly reflected in the purchasing department.

The Buyer and the Manufacturer.—Some buyers have found it to their advantage to get in extremely close touch with the manufacturers. They have been able to contribute towards the more efficient handling of the manufacturers' own problems. Manufacturers, as the F. W. Woolworth Company says, are not necessarily merchandisers. Many times they cannot see the possibilities of an item they are shown. Buyers have frequently gone so far as to show manufacturers how they could revise their methods so as to increase their efficiency and make a larger output possible. The buyers know that, unless they can make it possible for the manufacturer to get a fair profit, their source of supply is bound to be curtailed. Therefore, they work in the closest cooperation with the maker.

As an example of this, they quote celluloid dolls which the war had made impossible to get in America, simply because no one over here knew how to make them. But the buyer who had previously purchased toys in Europe before the war had made such a close study of the subject that he was able to show American manufacturers how to produce celluloid dolls which would retail at 10 cents.

Christmas tree ornaments were scarcely to be found anywhere the first years of the war. Again, the Woolworth buyer induced a manufacturer to try some experiments, and as a result the Woolworth organization sold millions of Christmas tree ornaments.

Woolworth has been given as an example of the good results which can be obtained by close contact of the buyer with the manufacturer. But, as a matter of fact, the buyer of any chain has the same advantages open to him. He, too, can become acquainted with the manufacturers and, knowing as he does or should the demands of the public to which his organization caters, he can often make valuable suggestions to the manufacturer. The buyer should remember that anything which helps the manufacturer to make more money will in the end result in a more satisfactory price to him.

The Manufacturer and the Buyer.—It has been shown how the buyer can work with the manufacturer with benefit to both. Now, in some cases the manufacturer can use the buyer to his advantage, that is, for sampling purposes. This is comparatively a new development and is confined to the five-and-ten-cent stores.

The manufacturer's object, as was mentioned previously, is to obtain as much publicity as possible for his product. The more he gets it before the public, the more publicity he will get and, consequently, his sales volume will mount up proportionately, always assuming his product to be a good one.

At one time, all manufacturers frowned upon the five-and-ten-cent store. The latter's counters were bare of advertised goods. There has been, however, a marked change in the attitude of the manufacturers, and many of them are now as anxious as they were previously reluctant to do business with the chain stores.

The reason is obvious. The large-variety chains sell in all parts of the country. They purchase in large quantities and as long as the article sells their patronage is steady. Of course, all articles cannot be used as samples, but it is surprising how many articles can be disposed of in this way, even at a profit. Before the war, Colgate & Company sent a trial tube of their tooth paste for 6 cents in stamps and kept a large force busy. They did, however, put out a 10-cent size when the government put a stop to sampling during the war. A great many manufacturers with nationally advertised goods have followed their example.

But the point is this: The buyer for the chain will not purchase articles of this kind unless there is a demand for them. The

manufacturer cannot have his sampling done free. He must create a demand. The chain will not sell the article—the article must sell itself.

Buying for the Penney Chain.—The method of buying followed by the J. C. Penney Company for its 500 stores, as explained by J. C. Penney in the *Dry Goods Economist*, is of the greatest interest to all those concerned with chain store activities. When the stores were few in number, the managers came east every six months to buy merchandise. As the store units increased, the number of managers trying to buy at the same time became so great that the operation was unwieldy and only partially satisfactory.

The next step was to establish in New York a buying organization formed of buyers trained in the organization. It was then found that the local knowledge of the various managers prevented maximum intelligence in buying. The method was thereupon modified somewhat. Twice a year New York, St. Louis, and St. Paul buyers meet managers at five different points—Cleveland, for eastern stores; St. Louis, for southern and central stores; St. Paul, for northern and central stores; Salt Lake City, for the Mountain region stores; and Portland, Ore., for northwest and Pacific Coast stores.

Previous to these meetings buyers build up complete sample lines which they exhibit to the managers. The managers thereupon make out their orders and purchases are pooled and bought in quantities.

Great care is taken when managers make their initial purchases. Each manager knows what his capital stock is, and what percentage he may spend for fixtures. He is allowed to buy no more than 50 per cent of his merchandise requirements, the balance of purchases being deferred until the store is started and he can judge at first hand of the character of the demand in the particular community.

"Want books" are used in each department for goods not carried in stock. The manager examines these to see whether there is enough demand for any given article to warrant stocking it.

The greatest consideration in buying is rapid turnover. The aim is to make small profits on a large volume. Some stores

make six to eight complete turnovers during the year. A smaller number have made a complete turnover on an average of once a month. This policy has eliminated the clearance sale. It is also believed that it creates confidence—a woman will buy a coat or suit at the beginning of the season knowing that her neighbor will not be able to purchase the same article later at half the price.

Conclusions.—In the chapter on Purchasing Records, the reader will find a full discussion of procedure and practice in a typical purchasing problem. In the following chapter on the warehouse he will find a discussion of a subject which is so closely connected with the purchasing problem in most chains as to be almost inseparable.

This chapter has described the general aspects of the purchasing problem in their broader phases. The constant trend of the chains towards a more direct purchasing contact with the manufacturer or other source of supply has been emphasized. This purchasing economy is effectually summed up in the phrase "centralized purchasing department and quantity buying." Cooperative buying associations have attempted to do the same thing and their failure to secure the desired results leads to the conclusion that not so much of the chain's efficiency as had been supposed was due to the purchasing. Purchasing is one of the essentials, but it is not the only one.

CHAPTER VI

THE WAREHOUSE

Outline

Its location:

1. To form the hub of a wheel of retail chain stores.
2. Location with reference to probable future development.
3. On transportation routes:
   (*a*) Rail.
   (*b*) Water.
   (*c*) Truck.
4. Ease of access for deliveries.

Size:

1. Large enough to carry stock comfortably.
2. Designed so that additions can be made easily.

Construction:

1. Number of floors.
2. System of conveying articles.
3. Miscellaneous considerations.

The stock:

1. Methods of arranging:
   (*a*) According to frequency of demand.
   (*b*) Weight.
   (*c*) Group class.
   (*d*) Alphabetical.
2. Need for room:
   (*a*) In order to take frequent inventories.
   (*b*) To facilitate moving of stock.
3. Desirability of putting old goods in front:
   (*a*) To avoid old goods
4. Desirability of placing heavy, bulky articles near exit.
5. Importance of having regular place for all stock:
   (*a*) Facilitates handling by porters.

The warehouse superintendent:

1. Position:
   (*a*) Subordinate to purchasing agent.
2. Duties:
   (*a*) Keep stock up-to-date.
   (*b*) Keep adequate reserve:
      (1) Notify purchasing agent when stocks are low.
   (*c*) Charge of personnel:

(1) Must see that orders are filled promptly.
(*d*) In charge of goods in storage:
(1) Responsible for theft.
(2) Must see goods are checked properly.

Deliveries:

1. Medium of delivery:
   (*a*) Truck:
      (1) Expense.
      (2) Speed of delivery.
   (*b*) Horse.
   (*c*) Care of delivery trucks or wagons.
2. Frequency of deliveries:
   (*a*) Dependent on:
      (1) Distance from member stores.
      (2) Frequency of turnover in member stores.
      (3) Storage capacity of member stores.
   (*b*) Desirability of having regular deliveries.
3. Routing of deliveries:
   (*a*) Certain number of stores to each driver.
   (*b*) Should know time necessary to deliver for each truck.

Filling requisitions:

1. Requisites of warehouse clerk:
   (*a*) Knowledge of stock.
   (*b*) Knowledge of brands or sizes.
   (*c*) Knowledge of code numbers if employed.
   (*d*) Accuracy.
   (*e*) Speed.

CHAPTER VI

THE WAREHOUSE

In the previous chapter the purchasing function was discussed, and this chapter treats the warehousing function. All goods purchased must ordinarily be stored at some central point preparatory to being distributed to the various retail outlets. For the ordinary retailer, this function is fulfilled by the jobber, but the chain, for various reasons, such as price economy, adequate deliveries, etc., takes this function upon itself. Thus, the warehouse becomes the focal center of the distributing system. Large national chains have several warehouses located at central points.

Warehouses are in charge of an experienced warehouseman who sees to it that supplies are received, that lots are broken when necessary, graded, assembled, and shipped at appointed times or as soon after orders are received as possible.

Warehouses operate on a maximum and minimum basis, inventory being kept by a modification or amplification of any one of the methods indicated elsewhere in the chapter. On the accuracy of these inventories and the manner in which they are kept, not only does the efficiency of the purchasing depend, but also the ability to fill orders promptly as they come in from branch stores.

The warehouse function may be divided as follows:

1. It maintains an adequate and fresh stock of goods on hand at all times.

2. It is so arranged that orders from stores can be filled and shipped at maximum speed and with maximum accuracy.

3. It must do this with the minimum expense for overhead.

The Warehouse Location.—There is a right place and a wrong place, as there is for the retail store, to locate the warehouse. But the problem varies much more in relation to the individual peculiarities of the chain. There are some general rules in this as in the other phases of chain store operation.

1. The warehouse should form the hub of the chain circle. That is, a chain is not really a chain in the sense that each branch store forms a link. It is more like a wheel with the warehouse at the center. This holds true whether the chain is national or local. A chain organized in the East may have to have warehouses in San Francisco, Denver, Omaha, Minneapolis, Kansas City, New Orleans, Chicago, Atlanta, Detroit, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Buffalo, and Baltimore, as well as in New York and Philadelphia. In other words, there is a series of wheels scattered over the country. If the chain is local, the warehouse should be located as nearly as possible in the center of the member stores. This saves time and expense in deliveries to member stores.

2. A chain warehouse should be located with an eye to the future. Where are the new stores going to be? Which way is population growing? These are only two of the many questions which, in consideration, form a complex problem in commercial research.

3. The warehouse must be located, if possible, on a railroad siding, so that goods can be transferred directly from cars to the warehouse.

4. The warehouse can be located to suit its own convenience and with a view to reducing overhead. It can be located, in other words, where rent is cheap. It must, however, be easy of access by road, so that trucks will meet no interference in going to and fro.

The Size of the Warehouse.—The best plan in building a warehouse is to have a building large enough for all immediate needs and for those of the near future, and to have it designed so that additions may be made inexpensively and rapidly. This plan will avoid waste and, at the same time, provide for future developments. If possible, the experience of the following chain should be avoided.

The warehouse of the company in question, when built ten years ago, was much too large, but at present it is too small. Consequently, various lines of canned goods have to be stored in the basements of some of the larger stores. This, as may be readily seen, causes extra trouble. It is necessary to keep a storage record of these lots, and whenever anything is removed

from any store basement a requisition has to be filled out in the office and then given to the truck driver who is to get the goods, and the store manager has to check the goods and O.K. the requisition. Some goods, such as canned peas, may be left untouched until spring, when the carload that was put into the main warehouse has been sold. Then the stores begin to draw from the basements, a hundred cases at a time.

It is a question whether the extra trouble involved in finding extra storage space does not offset, in great measure, the economies effected by buying goods ahead in large quantities.

Of course, the size of the warehouse depends a great deal on the goods sold by the chain and the number of stores supplied. A grocery warehouse would have to be much larger than a shoe warehouse or a haberdashery warehouse, and much more specialized in the first and the last case.

Arrangement of Stock in Warehouse.—There are several methods of arranging stock—according to frequency of demand, according to weight, according to group classification, etc. The warehouse superintendent must determine the method according to the nature of the product. It would be advisable to heed the following hints:

1. Do not overcrowd the goods. They must be easy of access both for counting—as is necessary when goods are repriced and also at other stated intervals—and for making additions to or removals from stock.

2. Old goods should be in the front, so that they may be used up first, thus insuring a fresh supply of goods at all times.

3. Heavy goods should be as near as possible to the place of loading, so as to save effort in moving.

4. Each article stocked should have a regular place, so that all confusion may be avoided.

5. Goods must be checked on arriving and on leaving. Therefore, the checking desk should be near the loading platform. Where warehouses contain several floors, checking is done separately for each floor.

Orderly arrangement and efficient handling of stock will reduce overhead and carrying charges, and also guard against confusion in filling orders and in speeding up operations generally.

The Warehouse Manager.—The man in charge of the warehouse may be a rather important individual, or he may be a mere subordinate of the purchasing agent. In the smaller chains, the purchasing agent has his office in the warehouse, and the control of warehousing problems is placed directly in his hands.

But where the warehouse is located at a distance, the warehouse manager has much responsibility. He must see that his stocks are kept up-to-date, and in sufficient reserve to fill all ordinary requirements. He must see that the central purchasing office is informed daily of the exact book inventory of the business, and that orders for branch stores are filled promptly. It may be that some of the buying is done from the branch warehouse—for example, for staple goods, where the only saving comes from quantity purchases.

The warehouse manager is responsible for checking goods as they come in and as they go out. His system should be so planned that it would be practically impossible for employees to destroy or break open goods without the knowledge of the auditing department. He is also, of course, in charge of the warehouse personnel—porters, checking clerks, billing clerks, and probably the delivery personnel, truck drivers, helpers, etc.

Deliveries to Member Stores.—The problem of delivery resolves itself into three factors: the medium of delivery, the frequency of deliveries necessary to stores, and the efficient routing of delivery service.

The first question, whether delivery shall be made by truck or by horse, is a matter of cost, to be decided by the chain management. Some firms maintain that horse delivery is cheaper for short hauls and motor trucks for longer distances. The majority, however, use motor trucks.

The second factor, that of the frequency of deliveries to stores, depends on the turnover in the store, plus the storage capacity in that store. This will naturally vary among the several chain branches. Some stores will require replenishing of stocks daily, some semi-weekly, and some weekly. This frequency can be determined quickly after short experience.

The routing is merely a matter of traffic, but it is claimed that scientific management of truck deliveries will save considerable

time and money. The traffic manager can ordinarily tell about how long it will take to deliver a a certain distance from the warehouse, and can arrange his routes accordingly.

Filling Requisitions.—When an order comes to the warehouse, it must be filled as quickly as possible and with absolute accuracy. The man performing this task must have complete knowledge of the stock, the sizes, the code numbers, the prices, etc. It is easy to imagine how accurate his knowledge must be in warehouses stocking a great variety of articles. In some cases it may be desirable to have the order pass through several departments, in each of which a special clerk picks out the goods.

In one haberdashery chain, a special conveyor on wheels is used, which has been designed to carry the merchandise to and from all parts of the wareroom. It eliminates the repeated handling of the goods, allows the order from one store to be filled at one time, and prevents any confusion with goods ordered for other stores. These conveyors are wheeled to the charge desk, where goods are packed for shipment to the stores. In this chain, after a shipment is charged and rechecked, it is passed along to a marker, who weighs, addresses, and makes out whatever receipts are necessary, as, in this chain, bills of lading and express receipts, while in other chains it might simply be a driver's receipt. In this haberdashery chain a billing clerk decides what case should be used for each shipment. Using a case too large for the shipments sometimes make a difference of 40 cents in transportation charges.

Requisition Blanks and Price Codes.—Requisition blanks may, if desired, be designed according to the arrangement of stock in the warehouse, to make it easier to fill orders. It is most important, however, that they be so simple as to avoid all possibility of misconstruction. The requisition blank on which the store manager merely lists what he wants is not ordinarily efficient.

If the warehouse is divided into several distinct departments, the store manager should be instructed to make individual orders on each department of the central organization from which he is ordering supplies. This question is treated at length in a later chapter. It is only desired to show here that a simple

fool-proof requisition blank is important from the warehouse end of the business.

Some chains find it desirable to use codes for simplicity in ordering. Where there is a great variety of stock, or where there is an arrangement according to departments this practice has much to recommend it. The following is a description of a code used in a men's furnishing chain:

The code book is divided into sixteen departments, numbered consecutively from 1 to 16. The derivation of the sequence of these numbers is the order in which they appear across the top of the daily report—that is, silk shirts, department No. 1; cotton shirts, department No. 2, etc. In making up a number for an article, the first part of the number is the number of the department in which the article belongs, the second is an initial or two initials designating the article, and, if there is more than one price for an article having the same initial, it is designated by a numeral following the initial. That is, "1" indicates first price, "2" second price, etc. As an example, take knitted neckwear. Neckwear is department No. 3. "K" is used to indicate "knitted" and "1–2–3–4," etc. to carry the price. In this case "1" means 50 cents, "2" means 65 cents, "3," $1, and "4," $1.50, and it follows that knitted neckwear selling at $1.50 will be coded simply "3K4."

It goes without saying that code variations are numberless. Convenience and efficiency should be the sole criteria in determining the use of such a short cut to ordering.

The Perpetual Inventory.—Different plans may be used to keep the inventory of the stock in the warehouses, but there is no disagreement on the fundamental point that the inventory is the keynote of the whole structure. On it depends a large part of the efficiency of the purchasing organization. The organization must know when it is getting low on this or that item, and how to avoid buying too much of something else. In a following chapter, an account is given of a model purchasing and inventory process. In this chapter, it is merely intended to indicate some of the methods of keeping inventory.

The stock record card is the simplest form and the one ordinarily used (see Fig. 30). This plan can be used for almost any type of chain. Cards may vary in size from 3 by 5 inches to 5 by 8 inches, according to the nature of the information which

it is desired to include. Ordinarily, a separate card is used for each item. At the top of the card is listed the article, the manufacturer, and any other general information necessary. The body of the card is arranged as in the illustration, although any additional information desired may be added in extra columns. It is most important in all cases that these stock record cards be kept up-to-date, and therefore a special clerk should be delegated to enter receipts and withdrawals on the card.

Some drug chains, handling from 60,000 to 90,000 articles, keep a book account for each article. Suppose this book is opened at random at the statement for Amolin, 2-ounce size. The page would appear as follows:

STOCK RECORD BOOK
1924

Article	January		February		March		April		May	
	Date	Am't	Date	Am't	Date	Am't	Date	Am't	Date	Am't
Amolin 2-oz.	1	450	1	153						
	8	137								
		323								
	10	500								
		823								
	16	320								
		503								
	28	200								
		303								
	31	150								
		153								

On the first of January there were 450 bottles on hand. On the eighth of January 137 bottles were withdrawn for distribution to retail outlets, leaving 323 in stock. On the tenth an order of 500 bottles came in, bringing the stock up to 823 bottles. On the sixteenth, the twenty-eighth, and the thirty-first there were withdrawals, leaving the stock on hand at the end of the month, according to the book balance, 153 bottles.

At the end of each month a physical inventory is taken. In this case the physical inventory corresponded with the book inventory, for there were, by actual count, 153 bottles on hand in the warehouse on February first. Since there were 450 bottles in stock the first of January, and 500 bottles added during the month, sales for the month are obtained by subtracting the inventory for the first of February, that is, 153 from 950, leaving the total sales of Amolin for the month of January at 797.

Supplies are ordered, as mentioned before, in accordance with a maximum and minimum scale, that is, an amount is determined under which it is inadvisable to go. In the same way, a maximum amount is determined. These warehouse maximums and minimums are constantly varying as the chain adds more units, or as seasonal variations affect sales of various products.

A Special System.—Because of the special features which it contains and its adaptability to a chain warehouse holding any kind of product, a brief description of an inventory system patented by Carl O. Williams, of the Acme Cash Basket Stores, Akron, Ohio, is given. This system includes the following features:

1. It allows one man to keep stock for an entire warehouse representing about 1,200 to 1,500 items.

2. The management can know by 5 p.m. each evening just how much stock is left of any and all items.

3. No matter how many orders go out during the day, only one entry is made in the stock record book. This saves time and work in fingering the pages, saves paper, and avoids the danger of error. Since but one entry and one subtraction are made daily, there is less chance of error than if 30 or 50 entries and subtractions were made. In spite of the apparently many duties of the stock clerk, he has no need of hurrying or rushing through his work.

Briefly, there is a stock record book for each floor of the warehouse. On each floor is an arrangement like a postoffice file, containing as many pigeonholes as there are items on the floor. These holes are narrow, about $\frac{5}{8}$ inch being wide enough. They are arranged in the same alphabetical order as the pages in the stock record book.

Figure 8 shows a page from the stock record book, arranged for a grocery warehouse. The arrangement can be altered to

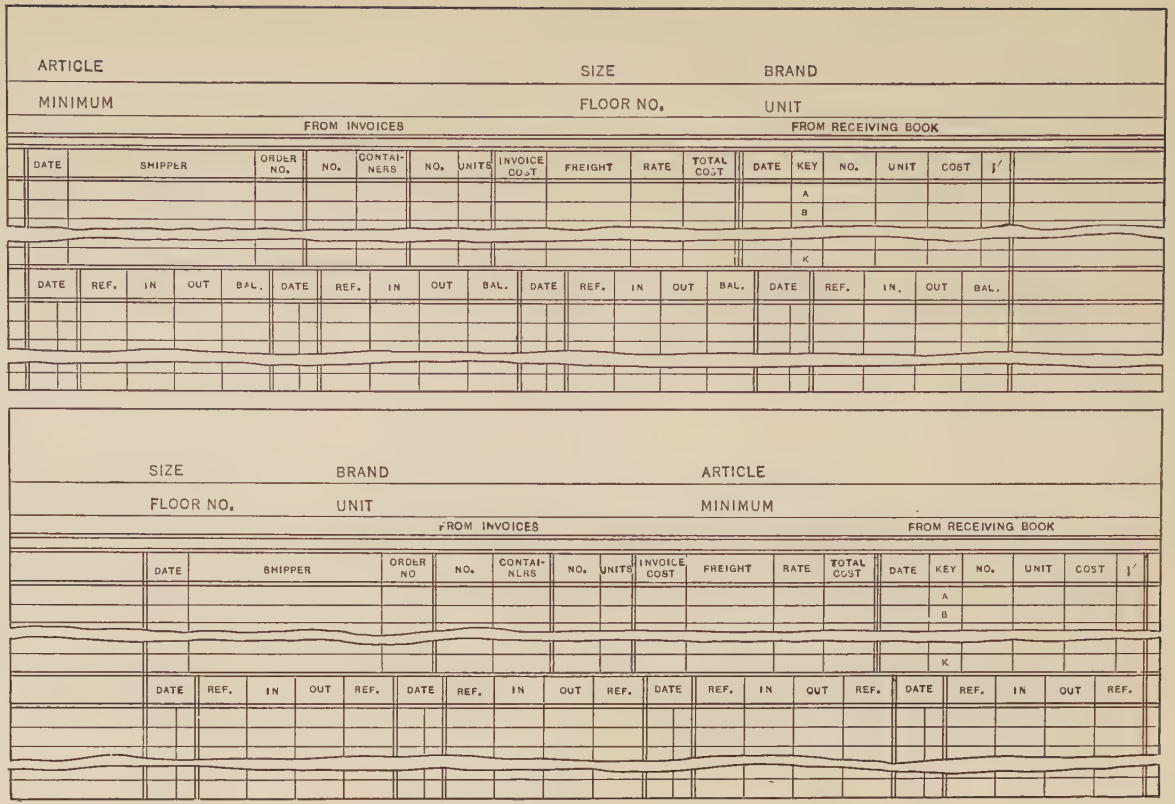


FIG. 8.—Warehouse stock record card.

suit any type of business which requires a warehouse. Entries are made on this page but once daily, as will be explained.

All outgoing orders are recorded by the stock record clerk. Suppose he sent out

1 case Capstan Peas.
3 20-ounce mop heads.
½ barrel glucose.
20 pounds lentils.

He picks up a "one-case" card and slides it into the slot under "Capstan Peas." There is a card of another color for one or two of any special item, and he inserts the color card for "3" in the 20-ounce mop-head slot. A similar card with a "1" on it goes into the ½-barrel glucose slot. There is another color for "pounds," and the lentils are taken care of by a card of that color bearing the number 20.

At the close of the day the stock clerk runs through his file of cards for the day. In the Capstan Pea slot, for example, are a number of colored cards which total 24½ dozen cases for the day. The clerk turns to the Capstan Pea page and records 24½ dozen cases, subtracting this from the total in stock and bringing down the balance.

The stock clerk notifies the buyer when any item in stock is nearing the minimum. He makes up a little card containing the following information:

Name of item.
From whom purchased.
Date and amount of last purchase.
Price of last purchase.
Average monthly consumption.
Stock on hand.

Every day the stock clerk verifies about ten items on one floor of the warehouse and corrects the figures in the book. A perpetual inventory needs constant checking, no matter how good it is, as mistakes are bound to occur.

Conclusions.—The variety of inventory systems which chains employ have by no means been exhausted. Nothing has been said about the replica of the main store, counter for counter, which is maintained by some five-and-ten-cent stores as a store warehouse. All these variations require different handling of

records and routine. It is appreciated that wherever records are concerned, it is exceedingly difficult to obtain an accurate idea of order and sequence unless one particular system is taken, and the process followed through from beginning to end. For this reason, Chap. XVI is devoted to purchasing and warehousing records as employed in one chain.

The theory of warehousing can be readily summed up:

1. A warehouse building large enough to contain sufficient stock and conveniently located in relation to retail outlets.

2. A system of records which will keep the buyer constantly and accurately informed of stock on hand at any moment.

CHAPTER VII

THE SALES PROBLEM

Outline

Seasonal:
1. Stimulus to retail selling by:
   (*a*) Holidays:
      (1) Christmas.
      (2) Easter.
2. Necessity of preparations:
   (*a*) To distribute sales.
3. Sales records as bases of predicting seasonal volume:
   (*a*) For entire organization.
   (*b*) For individual stores.

Daily:
1. Importance of Saturday.
2. Influence of weather:
   (*a*) Rain.
   (*b*) Excessive heat or cold.

Business conditions:
1. Ability of chain stores to weather financial stress.
2. Business of chains dealing in necessities actually better in periods of economic depression.

The product:
1. Characteristics:
   (*a*) A necessity or semi-necessity.
   (*b*) Turns over rapidly.
   (*c*) Portable.
2. Number:
   (*a*) Large variety.
   (*b*) Standard sizes only:
      (1) Extra large and extra small avoided.
      (2) Sizes most commonly required.
   (*c*) Standard styles.
3. Quality:
   (*a*) Necessity of uniformity.
4. Trend towards packaged goods.

Merchandising policies:
1. Display:
   (*a*) Window trims.
   (*b*) Counter displays.
   (*c*) Shelf displays.

2. Cut-price sales:
   (*a*) Loss leaders or weekly specials.
   (*b*) One-cent sales.
3. Seasonal sales:
   (*a*) Small necessity of.
4. Novelty sales or selling ideas:
   (*a*) Cooperative merchandising campaigns.
5. Premiums and trading stamps.

CHAPTER VII

THE SALES PROBLEM

All chain store problems are affected by the question of sales, for a chain store organization is essentially a highly organized retail selling machine. The purchasing agent, before any purchasing is done, must know the rate at which goods can be sold. Furthermore, the nature of his purchases must be regulated by the buying desires of the public. The personnel, the store managers, the clerks, the supervisors, etc., are all people who have been trained in the art of selling. All efforts made to maintain morale have been made with the intent of increasing sales.

In this chapter three phases of the sales problem are discussed:

1. Causes which lead to fluctuations in sales, either regular or irregular, over periods of time.
2. The general nature of products sold in chain stores.
3. Various merchandising plans and policies.

In general, the laws of merchandising which apply to any retail selling organization apply to chain stores, with the exception that national chains have a great many problems due to their broad distribution that do not come up in handling an independent business or even a small local chain. For example, it is quite evident that the tastes of one community will not coincide exactly with the tastes of another, nor can any efforts on the part of the clerks offset this community antagonism to particular products. On this point the standardized policy of the chain must give way.

As far as possible, conditions applying to the majority of chains are used. But each chain has to face these conditions in different ways.

Seasonal Fluctuations.—Chain store organizations, as almost every other merchandising activity, are affected by seasonal trends. Christmas is an almost universal stimulant to every business. The summer is apt to mark a falling off in most lines.

Every product has seasons during which sales show a tendency to fall off. Seasonal activities are regular in occurrence, as differ-

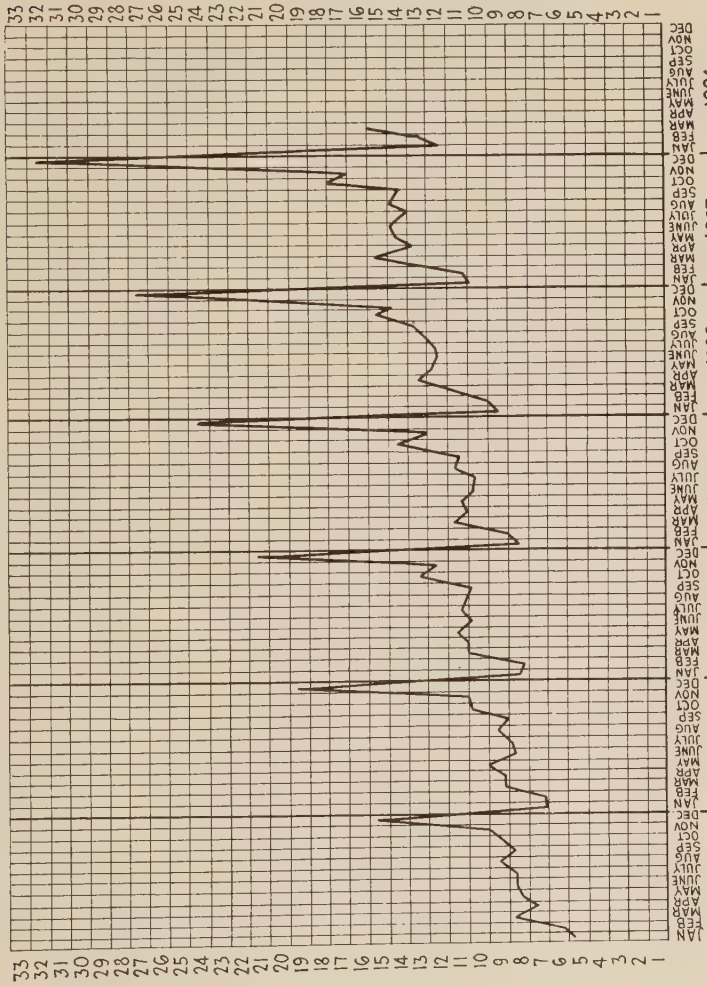


FIG. 9.—Monthly sales of F. W. Woolworth Company, 1918–1924.

entiated from periods of prosperity and depression, which alternate at infrequent intervals.

Figure 9 illustrates the remarkable regularity in the volume of sales of the F. W. Woolworth Company, made up from the following statistics.

	1923	1922	1921	1920	1919	1918
January	$ 11,047,907	$ 9,516,978	$ 8,336,208	$ 8,491,203	$ 7,127,859	$ 5,921,295
February	11,233,620	10,097,563	9,138,262	8,172,381	7,197,271	6,294,900
March	15,782,142	11,846,934	11,830,973	10,852,951	9,121,342	8,712,378
April	13,940,314	13,439,278	10,963,473	10,743,878	9,135,404	7,446,629
May	14,798,615	12,880,654	11,202,722	11,320,849	9,924,491	8,331,101
June	14,911,866	12,432,893	10,740,760	10,817,985	8,549,958	8,690,227
July	14,001,729	12,557,272	10,744,282	11,282,810	8,717,793	8,608,142
August	14,964,173	12,958,302	11,637,578	11,069,968	9,553,121	9,552,898
September	14,774,962	13,508,231	11,326,709	10,954,363	9,048,854	8,768,774
October	18,084,747	15,774,228	14,406,922	13,242,233	10,742,643	9,331,380
November	17,283,437	14,835,042	13,109,603	12,427,566	10,985,136	10,094,984
December	32,626,312	27,463,177	24,155,400	21,521,798	19,374,740	15,422,146
Total	$193,437,449	$167,313,417	$147,592,892	$140,910,267	$119,501,009	$107,179,414

The sales of this company are a good illustration because they are not primarily affected by good or bad times. The chart immediately shows that each Christmas brings a great peak of business activity. The sales for the month of December are double those for any preceding month, and three times as large as those for January and February. The sales, moreover, show a definite percentage of increase year by year, so that it is possible to forecast with great precision the volume of sales which will take place during any month of the coming year by comparison with sales during past years for that same month.

In addition to the Christmas peak, it is found that a minor rise takes place each year in March or April, which can be attributed to Easter sales. There is a drop in late summer, reflecting vacation times, and thereafter business is fairly good until the Christmas rush suddenly doubles sales. January and February bring the lowest ebb of the year's business. The experience of the Woolworth chain is not unique. The other five-and-ten-cent store chains experience the same seasonal trends.

What is shown so clearly by the Woolworth case is applied more generally in Fig. 10, comparing a number of chain stores with each other and with department stores, apparel stores, and mail-order houses. Chain groceries show the fewest seasonal

peaks with chain drugs reflecting only Christmas activity. Chain cigar stores and chain dry goods have decided seasonal peaks. In the dry goods chains there is a distinct mid-summer reaction.

Figure 11 is a composite chart of retail activities averaged over 1919, 1920, and 1921. This shows plainly the falling off in January and February, the recovery lasting until the end of June, the summer apathy and the fall rise culminating at Christmas time.

The United Cigar Stores Company has spent a great deal of time and thought on the seasonal problem and has done much towards distributing the seasonal peaks. For example, its executives realized that in the holiday season the stores would be overcrowded and many sales lost unless some means were taken to spread the sales out over a few weeks prior to the actual event,

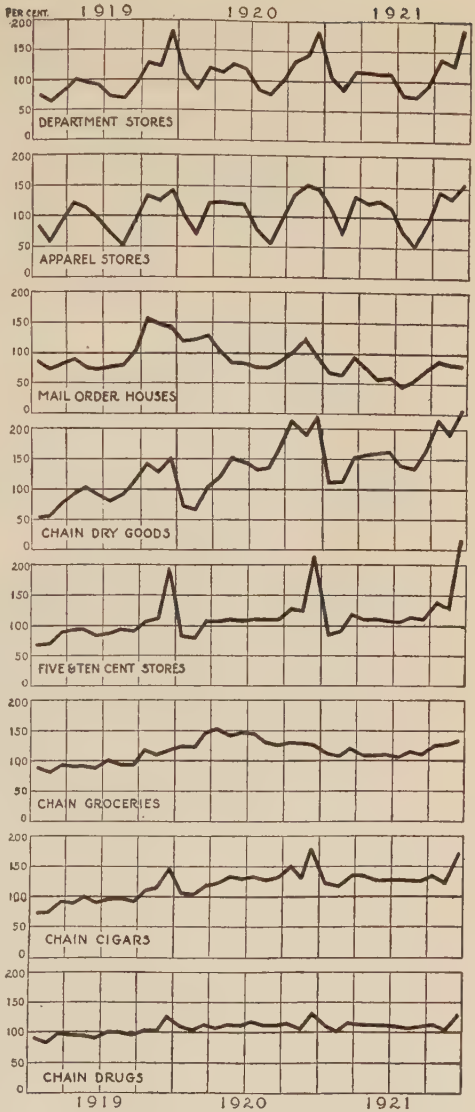


FIG. 10.—Comparison of seasonal trends (chart prepared by Federal Reserve Bank of New York).

As it is against the policy of the chain to feature cut-price sales, unusual offers are made, such as including extra articles for the same price, and these offers are made some time before Christmas.

In January and February tobacco sales are poor. In addition to the post-holiday apathy, there is the fact that smokers do not enjoy smoking out-of-doors in very cold weather. Also, many are consuming the cigars given them for Christmas.

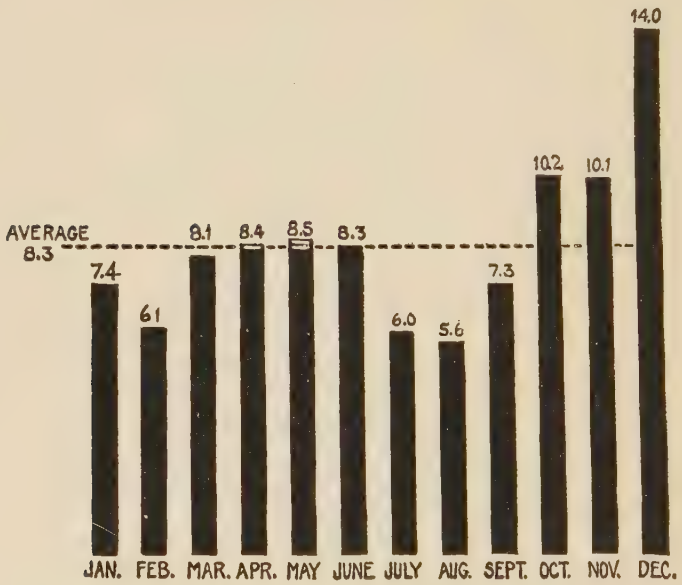


FIG. 11.—How retail sales vary with the seasons (chart prepared by Federal Reserve Bank of New York).

Special sales are, therefore, again resorted to. One year every purchaser of a pipe was given one-half the amount of his purchase in anything in the store. The company figured that these special sales gave enough news value in advertising to pay the actual falling off in profits.

What has been done by this company can also be done elsewhere. With the records of sales for previous years as a basis, some scheme can be worked out for distributing seasonal congestion, and perhaps bringing up sales in off seasons.

Daily Fluctuations.—It is not only possible to forecast monthly sales by a careful study of records, but daily sales as well. Some days in the week are far better for business purposes than others. For example, the Great Atlantic & Pacific Tea Company does half the total business of the company on Fridays and Saturdays. To a great extent the same is true of the five-and-ten-cent store chains. Officials of F. W. Woolworth Company point out that sales on Saturdays are usually $800,000, or equal to the business of two days during the week.

Daily sales cannot, however, be forecasted with such accuracy as monthly sales, because other factors enter the equation. For example, few people shop in very stormy weather, or very hot or very cold weather. Weather extremes discourage retail sales activity.

Where a chain deals in perishable goods this element of uncertainty is important. Mort Hamburger, sales promotion and advertising manager of the Federal System of Bakeries of America, Inc., says:

> In any retail bakery business there is always the element of what we have termed "day-old bread." The ideal situation in the Federal Bakery is to sell out the day's output of bread. Certain kinds of pastries can be carried over without losing their flavor or taste and are just as palatable the second day as the first. Practically every Federal Bakery has an unusually heavy bake Friday nights in order to have a sufficient supply of merchandise salable for Saturday, and hence it is necessary to carry not only cakes and pastries, but extra bread.

As far as regulating the production of baked goods in Federal shops is concerned, this is left entirely to the judgment of the manager. In the cash-and-carry business it is difficult to judge to the very loaf just how large a quantity should be baked. After all is said and done, the element of production is the one problem in the bakery business that cannot be solved accurately.

A sudden downpour of rain, or an unusually cold or warm day, will have a marked effect on the cash-and-carry business, and managers are at all times on the lookout for these hazardous days. Every manager in the Federal System gets a daily report on the weather and is guided accordingly when ordering his bake. If, for instance, on a Friday night the manager gets a report from the Weather Bureau to the effect that Saturday

will be a cold, rainy day, he will cut down his production a little, so as to avoid the possibility of discards.

Although the weather may be the cause of decreasing some sales, the chain drug store which carries umbrellas will find a sudden increase in sales, the chain shoe store will double its sales of rubbers, etc.

Business Conditions.—Apart from any seasonal, daily, or climatic influences on sales, chain store organizations are subject to the general effects of business prosperity and depression. This is unequally distributed in its action, largely due to the nature of the product, the successful purchasing policy of the chain, the wisdom of the management in foreseeing conditions, etc.

The five-and-ten-cent store suffers little from business depression. The Woolworth sales chart readily shows that the business depression of 1920–1921 failed to retard to any marked degree the healthy growth of the chain. In fact, it is true that in hard times more people patronize the five-and-ten-cent stores than in good times. In a grocery chain, normally dealing in low-priced staple articles, business depression also has but a slight hold.

The Product.—What sort of goods can be sold in chain stores? At first thought it would seem almost everything. The chain store idea is not limited to tangible products, but can be extended to intangible products, such as a chain of theaters, hotels, and shoe-repair shops. Now, are there rules which can be applied to the choice of products which it is possible to sell through retail chains? Theoretically the answer would be "No," but no system has yet been evolved which makes possible a successful chain for retailing some products. There may be isolated examples of small chains, but there are no great chains of jewelry stores or furniture stores. There must, therefore, be some general principles which govern the products sold in chain stores.

1. The more rapid the turnover, the better adapted the product is for chain store retailing. A well-known brand of cigarettes, turning once a week, is better than a line of cut glass turning once a year. Slow turnover means large overhead expenses, which means failure in efficient chain store operation.

2. The product should preferably be a necessity or a semi-necessity. The chain store must have constant patronage. It

must be able to predict its purchasing requirements. The demand for luxuries is uncertain and the larger profit cannot offset this uncertainty.

3. The article should be portable. Since most chain stores are cash-and-carry retail outlets, the easier the article is to wrap up and take away, the more sales can be made.

4. The product should be such as to permit centralized and standardized executive control.

The fact that a product is merchandised successfully through chain stores without fulfilling all these requirements does not prevent these rules from general application.

The Number of Products.—A chain store may carry a larger variety or a smaller variety of goods than its independent competitor. In a grocery chain the number is usually smaller. The Kroger Grocery & Baking Company usually carries not more than 400 brands in place of the 900 to 1,000 carried by the independent grocery, because the chain store carries only groceries which turn over rapidly. No brands of questionable reputation are stocked. No goods for which there is little call are allowed to take up valuable space on the shelves. The Piggly Wiggly Company's stores are necessarily, because of the self-service idea, restricted in products to the best known brands. This policy allows concentration on a few lines.

With the drug store the reverse is true. The large chain store is likely to have a much larger variety of products, due to its great merchandising power. The chain drug store, usually located in advantageous city sites, can often stage a special sale and complete it in one day by means of newspaper advertising, a proceeding outside the reach of the independent druggist.

The stock problem of the five-and-ten-cent store is a difficult one. Professor Duncan in his book, "Marketing, Its Problems and Methods," states that 92 per cent of the stock of such a store is made up of everyday necessities, 4 per cent luxuries, candy and jewelry novelties 2 per cent, and fads and souvenirs 2 per cent more. In addition, there is always an opportunity for trying out experimental goods. Some five-and-ten-cent stores take on as many as 48 different lines of goods, including groceries, automotive parts, etc., and with such appurtenances as a flower department, a photograph gallery, a soda fountain, and a res-

taurant. It is claimed that the limit of expansion has been reached in the variety field, and that further extension of lines carried must be reached by raising the price limit. In support of this argument, it is noteworthy that, with the exception of Woolworth, the other five-and-ten-cent store chains have raised their price limit while retaining the selling advantage contained in the name five-and-ten-cent store.

The United Cigar Stores Company claims to have deviated in but two respects from its original policy, and one of these deviations was to take on the retailing of sundry merchandise, such as candy, chewing gum, safety razors, playing cards, etc. Several members of the organization were averse to taking on lines which would, in their opinion, detract from the individuality of the store and render a clerk trained to sell only tobacco products less efficient when he had other things to sell as well. As a compromise, at first only goods were taken on which it was not necessary to sell, but only to put on display. Then other articles were tried out. Pencils, handkerchiefs, and books were not particularly successful, but chewing gum was an immediate success. Candy was sold in packaged form. At one time a bulky glass jar was introduced for use at home for holding cigars, and sales surpassed all expectations, the jars being carried off in thousands.

When the United Retail Candy Stores Company started in business, it was feared that sales of candy in the cigar stores would immediately fall off, but, on the contrary, no effect was observed. A cigar store is an excellent place for retailing candy as a side line, because approximately 80 per cent of all candy sales are made to men.

Number of Lines.—The policy of pleasing the public extends logically to the number of lines carried, and even to the sizes in particular lines. The manufacturer's great problem in selling to the chain stores is to create a demand for his product among the public. If any missionary work is to be done by the chains, they do it in behalf of their own products and private brands. Manufacturers' goods must sell themselves.

Grocery stores ordinarily limit the number of sizes of a particular line in stock. Extra large packages are avoided, both because of the difficulty in carrying them and because there is

comparatively little demand for them. A customer will usually take two of the smaller size if she desires a considerable quantity.

The Dotson-Kerwin stores, in Iowa, have an ingenious method whereby a stock of odd sizes sufficient for one store is made to do for five, and by this method makes it possible to secure a large enough turnover of these odd lines to warrant carrying them. The company has five stores: in Waterloo, Independence, Oelwein, Vinton, and Cedar Falls. Although Waterloo is about four times the size of the other towns, all stores are stocked uniformly as to variety and grade. The size of the stock varies, of course, with the demand. "Off sizes," says an article in the *Chicago Apparel Gazette*, "are carried by each store, and each store keeps a list of odd sizes and patterns carried by the other stores." As the stores are all within a radius of 30 miles, whenever a customer asks for an odd size and it is not in stock, the clerk looks it up in the card file and in a few moments has telephoned and is assuring the customer he can get it that afternoon.

As a general rule, however, chain stores do not and should not attempt to carry anything but standard sizes and lines.

Quality.—It is a peculiarity of human nature that, whatever price is charged for an article, the customer expects good quality. No chain store can afford to sell inferior goods. Like the attitude of the clerk, the quality of the articles offered reacts on sales in all the other stores of the chain. Grocery chains ordinarily make a practice of inspecting all goods at the warehouse and exercising the most careful supervision over standardization of quality under brand names.

Enough has already been said about the necessity for turnover and fresh stock, under the head of "Purchasing." Quality goods are necessarily fresh and not leftovers. No chain store organization should try experiments with the quality of its products. The best for the price is none too good.

Packaged Goods.—Wherever possible, chain stores prefer to sell packaged goods. The grocery chains and the drug chains are the outstanding examples of this tendency. At one time the grocer measured out 10 pounds of sugar and 5 pounds of cornmeal, etc. Now he simply hands over the counter a neat package all done up. Packaged goods are another move towards efficiency, since they eliminate a great deal of time spent in preparing

bulk articles for a customer. In many cases, a clerk could wait on two or three customers while measuring and doing up parcels of bulk articles for one customer. Recently one large chain store grocery did away with all its coffee grinders, confining sales of coffee to packaged goods.

Where chain stores do carry bulk articles, it is wise for the clerks to have standard weights wrapped up and ready in their spare moments, so that no time will be lost in making sales.

The Place of the Product in Chain Store Merchandising.—The product plays a larger part in chain store merchandising than in the merchandising policies of a single, independent store, because chain stores depend so much on display, on the appeal of the article to the eye of the consumer. In the five-and-ten-cent store the product must virtually sell itself. The policy of substitution has almost died out and the chain store customer may be sure of getting what he wants.

The merchandising plans and policies of chain store organizations are not built around service, or exclusiveness of trade, but solely around the product. In many cases this central element may be the price of the product. Probably in the majority of cases price will be the basis upon which the merchandising policies are formulated. But some chains emphasize the quality of the product. The more necessary an article to the consumer, the less sales effort is required to dispose of it. It becomes a question of selling a number of staple articles to the consumer by efficient display, seconded by other selling methods.

Chain store organizations have certain settled merchandising policies, some of which are inseparably connected with the chain idea, and others of which are elaborations of ordinary retail selling methods. For example:

1. Efficient display:
   (*a*) Window trims.
   (*b*) Counter displays.
   (*c*) Shelf display of product.
2. Cut-price sales:
   (*a*) Loss leaders.
   (*b*) One-cent sales.
3. Seasonal sales.
4. Special novelty sales.
5. Premiums and trading stamps, etc.

The first point has been treated at length in the chapter on the Member Store.

The theory of pricing will be discussed in the following chapter. The point to be brought up here is the effect of pricing as a sales appeal. "All people want to make a good bargain. Let them!" said Frank W. Woolworth, and he proceeded to base his whole merchandising campaign on a display of goods at the lowest possible prices.

Many chains have a fixed policy of featuring each week a so-called "loss leader," that is, some well-known article, the price of which is usually standard and known to the majority of purchasers, is put on sale at actual cost to the chain, or even at a slight loss. This is done on the theory, which works out in practice, that people will be attracted to this bargain and will buy other goods as well.

Loss leaders are often termed "weekly specials." One chain says:

> Our business was built up on the idea of weekly specials. Every week we cut the price of about 20 items in the store and sell them, for that week only, at what amounts to almost a wholesale price.

Many other chain stores follow this idea with their own variations.

The "one-cent" sale, so highly and successively featured by the Liggett stores, is one of the variations of this loss-leader idea, very ingeniously carried out. At first glance, it actually appears as if the drug store were taking a terrific loss. The explanation, however, is simple.

The person in charge of organizing the sale makes a list of long-price articles, that is, articles of which the cost to the store is quite low compared with the selling price. Suppose, for example, that an article cost 10 cents and retailed for 25 cents. This leaves a gross profit to the store of 60 per cent. Now suppose a 1-cent sale is announced, that is, a purchaser can obtain two of these articles for the price of one. By paying 26 cents, the customer can procure two packages of the 25-cent size. One article is sold for 25 cents and the other for 1 cent. If the average cost of doing business is 20 per cent, no money is actually lost on the sale. By increasing the turnover, the expense of operation is reduced.

Seasonal Sales.—Generally speaking, the chain stores make much less use of the season as an excuse for staging special sales than independent organizations. The reasons are obvious. The chain store, with its larger turnover, its more efficient purchasing organizations, and its wide distribution, is able to sell its goods as they come in. Chains, like Penney, which make a rule never to buy ahead, naturally never have seasonal cut-price sales.

Grocery chains often have a canned-goods sale, but these are rather in the nature of loss leaders than a genuine seasonal clearing out of stock. Chain shoe stores, like any other shoe store, have seasonal sales, but often this is due to the large number of manufacturers' chains included among the chain shoe retailers.

The average chain considers it more profitable to estimate seasonal demands closely enough so that there will be no large surplus of leftovers, with overhead expenses of storage and sales losses.

Special Novelty Sales.—Originality in selling methods always attracts the public. Feature sales are always popular with firms which advertise. It gives them something to talk about and explain. Novelty in window display is another method. But new selling ideas pay better than any other method.

President Ralph B. Wattley of the National Drug Stores says his ideas were founded on what he himself would like to find on entering a chain store. One of the first things he did was to bring the prescription counters out in plain sight instead of keeping them in the rear according to traditional drug store practice. (See Fig. 12.) Then he formulated the policy of selling all prescriptions at cost, the company even going so far as to carry part of the cost. This was like offering the public something in the nature of a perpetual loss leader with a reduction of something like 50 per cent to the public. This was a new idea and quite opposite to the trend in some drug chains to minimize the prescription business or even concentrate it in a few stores.

One day Mr. Wattley observed a man rushing from one counter to another in the endeavor to purchase a list of articles. This man was evidently in a great hurry and was much inconvenienced by the fact that he had to go from counter to counter to make his

FIG. 12.—Interior of National Drug Store showing prescription counter in plain sight.

purchases. President Wattley immediately conceived the idea of a men's department, carrying all the small articles a man would be likely to purchase. It would contain everything from razor blades to poker chips.

The Federal System of Bakeries occasionally features a novelty product. They originated a name for a slightly different product, such as Priscilla Cake, Oliver Twist, the Longfellow Loaf, Tokio, and Honey Boys. Generally speaking, these names convey little of the nature of the product. To each product one solid week of selling effort is devoted and all merchandising policies are bent to this end. In Tokio week, for example, the following merchandising plan was followed:

1. The product—a poppy-seed loaf of bread of a slightly different shape.
2. The advance window paster "teaser."
3. The window displays.
4. The inside store displays.
5. Advertising and publicity.
6. Sales caps for the sales girls.

It should be stated that previous to starting the complete sales campaign, the detail had been carefully worked out in several cities on a test-campaign basis.

During the Tokio week, sales of Tokio bread averaged 4.2 per cent of total sales, two stores going over 11 per cent. As a method of stimulating sales and gaining publicity it was a distinct success, because of the carefully planned campaign.

Cooperative Merchandising Campaigns.—There has been a movement of recent years by manufacturers to cooperate with retailers in staging sales campaigns. This is but another phase of the trend towards more direct distribution, but it deserves close watching in the future.

The Sun-Maid Raisin Company, which recently ceased distribution through jobbers, cooperated with the Federal System of Bakeries in putting on a Sun-Maid raisin week. Since many of the bakery's products were naturally made with raisins, any increased sales would accrue to the benefit of both the manufacturer and the chain. The following analysis of results accomplished by retail units during the Sun-Maid week is interesting as showing what such cooperation will effect:

Average sale for raisin bread three weeks prior to Raisin Week	$19.66
Average sale raisin bread during Raisin Week	26.03
Average sale two weeks following	20.94

This meant that, during Raisin Week, sales of raisin bread increased 32½ per cent. Although sales afterwards fell off, there was a net gain of 6½ per cent.

Chain organizations with manufactured products of their own normally prefer to feature such products, but there are undoubtedly possibilities in the idea which have not yet been fully determined.

Premiums and Trading Stamps.—The premium department of the United Cigar Stores Company is one of the features of the company. The policy of giving premiums was initiated when this company first started in business. A special company was formed to handle and expand the premium end of the business. Originally, the list of articles given away in return for premiums was chiefly made up of articles which men ordinarily liked, but it was soon found that silk stockings and other articles for women assumed marked importance and the premium list was accordingly enlarged.

The clerk is instructed to place the certificate in the consumer's hand. Otherwise not half of them would be taken. The premium department buys all merchandise at half the price the consumer would have to pay and it gives these premiums as an inducement for the customer's trade. By buying at the United Cigar Stores, in other words, and saving the coupons, the customer can redeem these coupons for articles at virtually wholesale prices.

Cost is figured on a 100 per cent redemption basis, and is taken care of by profits from increased sales. Of course, there is never a 100 per cent redemption. In one year the United Cigar Stores had 86¾ per cent of its premiums redeemed, a figure remarkably high. When the redemption percentage is low, profits remain with which to start new premium stations, pay clerks, etc.

Some chains use trading stamps as a drawing card for customers but the practice has never become very widespread. Both premiums and trading stamps are forms of service which, in particular cases, it is found profitable to give because of the increased sales

resulting from them, and the consequently increased profits to take care of the increased cost.

Keeping Track of Customers.—Of the various methods of sales promotion, the telephone is one of the best, provided that complete and accurate records are kept of customers' purchases. Chain stores will be compelled more and more in the future to adopt some of the department store methods of intensive sales cultivation.

Roos Brothers, operating a chain of six apparel stores on the Pacific Coast, have a master card information system, giving every name of their 33,000 customers, address, telephone number, nature of merchandise purchased, lot number, size, price paid, salesperson serving, the date of purchase, and total purchases for any four-month period, or one season of the year. Merchandise checked includes sales in hats, suits, and overcoats for men, suits, coats, dresses, and millinery for women, and suits and coats for juveniles.

The cards are assembled at the central office, where they are filed ready for reference by any of the stores. Each store has a different color for its own group of cards. The central office uses the cards for publicity purposes. If a reasonable amount of time passes without a customer making a purchase, he is called on the telephone and told that the store is carrying a garment in his size at an attractive price. Employees must report as to the results of calls on names on their lists. Salespeople are advised to make up lists of customers by:

1. Making note of all charge customers.
2. Noting peculiar leanings of customers towards merchandise.
3. Suggesting to other customers that they leave their names, so that they may be given merchandise information.
4. Watching stocks and selecting merchandise which they sincerely believe customers will enjoy hearing about.
5. Telling customers of the desire of the store to serve them with information concerning new merchandise.

Conclusions.—The sales problem is the great problem in chain store retailing. All others are subordinated. Without volume of sales there can be no success, because the narrow margin of profit absolutely demands this volume. Thus, the first principle of sales is to find out what the public wants. The owner of one

small drug chain installed a want book and noted everything asked for in his drug stores, from hair nets to piano strings. In this way he was led to stock tennis and golf supplies, fishing tackle, baseball goods, bathing suits, fountain pens, alarm clocks, and scissors. He was able to sell this heterogeneous collection of goods because his public wanted them.

Public taste changes rapidly. One grocery chain noticed that sales of black tea were increasing. Several lines of green tea were immediately dropped and the black tea pushed. The result was that in three months sales of black tea were exactly doubled.

Control of sales is naturally effected through careful records and accounting, but the increase of sales comes from careful watching of these records, plus sales ideas. When these sales ideas are embodied in merchandising plans, tested in advance for their practicality, increased sales must result.

CHAPTER VIII

COMPETITION

Outline

The question of the independent retailer:
1. The permanence of his position:
   (*a*) Due to:
      (1) Various forms of service.
      (2) Special quality goods.
      (3) Carrying goods for which there is small demand and consequently low rate of turnover.
   (*b*) Caters to wealthy trade which can afford to pay for extra service.
   (*c*) Impossibility of competing with chain store on basis of price.

Competition of chain with chain:
1. Impossibility of chain monopoly:
   (*a*) Deals in staples:
      (1) Sources not possible to corner.
      (2) Too high a price charged by one chain would mean development of new chains.
2. The trend towards combination of chain with chain:
   (*a*) Caused by:
      (1) Increased economy of operation:
         (*a*) In purchasing.
         (*b*) In decreased overhead.
   (*b*) Theory of growth:
      (1) The larger the number of member stores, the larger the sales per unit store.

Private versus advertised brands:
1. Chain store policy:
   (*a*) Sell what the public demands.
   (*b*) Simplify stock as far as possible.
2. Value of private brand to chain:
   (*a*) Increased profits.
   (*b*) Advertising value to store.
   (*c*) Avoids price disputes with manufacturers.
3. Substitution:
   (*a*) Small extent of the practice.
   (*b*) Effect of "own goods" bonus.

Bases of chain store competition:

1. Accounting.
2. Display.
3. Goodwill:
   (*a*) Of public.
   (*b*) Of employees.
4. Location.
5. Management.
6. Personnel.
7. Price.
8. Purchasing.
9. Sales policies.
10. Turnover.

CHAPTER VIII

COMPETITION

Competition in the chain store field is definitely of two types: first, that between the chain store and the independent store, and, second, that between the chain stores themselves. The first type is the one most talked of, while the second is the one which matters most to the chain organization. A chain expert on locations can tell after an analysis whether the community can support one of his stores, and the chain store will be sure of a certain amount of trade based on its location and its price appeal.

There has been little unpartisan discussion of the question of chain store competition. In the months just prior to the war there was much talk and some outcry against chain policies by those independents who were unable to meet chain prices. When the war brought almost universal business prosperity, money was made so easily that the phenomenal strides made by the chains in expansion programs passed almost unnoticed. The result is that now the lines are fairly drawn. Each town and city supports a certain quota of chain grocery stores. Other chains are close behind. These chains obtain a certain percentage of the trade, namely, that percentage which is willing to pay cash and do without deliveries. Although for some years past the trend has been towards "cash-and-carry" chains, it is quite likely that in the sharper competition of the future some chains may offer delivery as a special inducement. Several grocery chains, in fact, are offering this service at present.

Many independent retailers have held the chain in such dread that they have been willing to sell out on the mere invasion of their territory by the chain store. Others are so narrow-minded as to close their eyes or turn them the other way when they pass a competing chain store. This deep-seated antagonism on the part of the independent retailer has done him great harm. He

has indulged his natural tendency of avoiding pushing branded goods which chain stores carry in order to avoid the almost inevitable price comparison.

The present situation is that the chains take a certain class of trade and the independents another, namely, the class of trade with money, which prefers the personal service and trouble which only the independent retailer can give. In return, this class is willing to pay an extra amount.

The Position of the Independent Retailer.—Will the small retailer ever go out of business?

As far as any definite answer can be given, it is "No!" The small retailer can obtain a hold on a certain section of the public through forms of service, square dealing, courtesy, handling low-turnover goods which are in small demand but which some of his customers wish, and by carrying an extra good line of something else as an added attraction.

Many people who go to a grocery store do not like to experiment and they wish someone to choose for them. If they know a certain retailer will send them good fresh lettuce, fruits, and vegetables, they will buy there and pay the extra price. It is the same point which nationally advertised goods are hammering home all the time. "Don't experiment. Our goods are always the same. The other fellow may be all right but you can always rely on us."

One grocery chain expert who has studied the question of independent competition has noted the following methods by which independent chain store retailers have been trying to hold their business and even increase it:

1. Several retailers have installed window bakeries and feature fresh-baked bread, cakes, etc.

2. Others have joined a corporation which enables them to buy groceries direct and save the jobbers' profit.

3. A few have opened confectioneries in connection with their grocery stores, so they can stay open Sundays.

4. A few have combined groceries and meat markets with good success.

5. Many little grocers have gone into market houses, where a small stall can be rented and where a comfortable retail business can be built up without much risk or high rent.

It is well worth quoting the opinion of an official of one grocery chain in regard to the status of the independent grocer.

He predicts a "war" between the various distributors of foodstuffs, because the cost of living must be reduced, and that means eliminating the bad accounts, the inefficiency of small grocers, and the other unnecessary expenses incidental to the old-style method of conducting a grocery business.

There are more failures in the grocery business every year, according to this authority, than in any other line of business. Ne'er-do-wells and dreamers who have a few hundred dollars to spare start a grocery store and settle back for a long lifetime of easy profits. Others start stores and let their wives and daughters run them while they keep on with their regular jobs. Such "grocers" are easily stampeded into buying too much, they have no grounding in the rudiments of business, and have not the stamina to carry them through when business is a little slow. Most of them just choose the grocery business because "if we can't make it go, we can eat our stock ourselves."

The small retailers, like the poor, will be always with us. And as long as there are small retail grocers, wholesale grocers will be needed.

Chain Competition with Other Chains.—There has been much debate, more in the past than at present, about the possibility of gigantic chains monopolizing the retail trade of the country.

The best safeguard of the public against high prices is in most cases the chain. In communities where the local dealers frequently charged all the traffic could bear, the advent of the chain store revolutionized prices. When two chains or more share the territory in a city and cover the same ground, there is a certainty of low prices. For example, the chain grocery business is not in one set of hands. New chains are constantly springing up and taking their places by the side of old ones.

The most potent argument against the chain store's being able to monopolize the retail trade is that the average chain deals in products made from the most ordinary materials, things which no one could possibly corner. In the grocery chain, for example, what individual could hope to control the supply of sugar, coffee, beans, tea, cocoa, wheat, corn, etc.? The moment

a chain tried to charge more than a fair price, the field would be flooded with retailers anxious to undersell him.

It is a strange fact, but many times corroborated, that if, by the side of an old-established chain branch, a new branch of another chain comes, the old chain store shows no diminution in sales, perhaps even an increase. In the majority of cases, the new branch builds up a satisfactory trade for itself. It is not recognized by many retailers that the coming of a chain store will mean increased business for the whole locality. People will buy in suburbs who had previously purchased in town. The price appeal of the chain store is a universal attraction.

Private Brands.—Just as unfair competition, secret discounts, etc. have been the slogans of the independent retailers in their denunciation of chain stores, the cry of the manufacturer has been against the private brand of the chain store.

It was found very early in chain store development that it was possible to make products and put them on sale in the chain's own stores at a much lower price than a nationally advertised, well-known product could be put out. These private brands became a bone of contention and remained so for many years. Both sides went too far and lost money by it. At one time, Mr. Hartford, the founder of the Great Atlantic & Pacific Tea Company, leaned heavily to private brands, but his keen business sense finally taught him that the public will eventually have what it wants, and, if it prefers nationally advertised goods, it is more profitable to sell them than to allow the customer to go elsewhere. As far as substitution is concerned, the chain store clerk or manager has no time to spend in pushing private brands. In fact, he is compelled to spend nearly all his time in disposing of articles called for by customers. The manufacturer of branded goods can be sure, at this date, of having his goods stocked, provided he creates a large enough demand for them.

There is frequently a problem to meet in the grocery business when the policy is to simplify the stock yet at the same time satisfy the majority. This is the frequent cause of a cry of substitution on the part of the manufacturer. The chain store side of the question is rarely heard. Here is what one chain store has to say:

We don't handle Gold Dust, Grandma's Washing Powder, Rub-No-More and a dozen other soap powders. Instead of these, we standardize on Sea Foam soap powder, buy it in carloads and push it hard. If a woman comes into one of our stores and asks for Gold Dust, the clerk (if he is any good) will tell her why we do not handle it and that Sea Foam will do anything that any other ordinary soap powder will do. Maybe he sells her a 5-cent package of Sea Foam and, if she likes it, we have made a new customer. Frequently, of course, she will not listen or refuses to try a substitute. But a chain store has to cater to the majority, and there are so many advantages in simplifying our stock that we do not worry about the occasional customer who wants something else.

Most retail and wholesale grocers get loaded up with a lot of dead goods that nobody wants. We take on new items, now and then, but generally drop an old item when we do. Recently, at one of our managers' meetings, considerable desire was shown for us to stock a certain baking powder, an advertising campaign being then in full force on this item. We called for a vote and found that more stores wanted Rumford's (which we already handled) than this other brand. We chose, therefore, to stay with Rumford. We do not wish to divide our business between too many items, because that means we should have to buy in lesser quantities, lose our quantity discounts, and also not be able to turn over our stock so frequently.

The main reasons why chain stores push private brands of their own are:

1. Possibilities of making extra profits.
2. The advertising value of the brand to the store.
3. Avoidance of trouble with manufacturers on price disputes.

Naturally, the first consideration carries the most weight, but chain stores realize that sales resistance eats up profits and they will never succeed in trying to stand out against an overwhelmingly strong popular brand.

The manufacturers' private brands are nationally advertised, and must be so if the chain stores are to stock them. But the chain's own private brands, as a rule, are unadvertised in any way other than by display, and by price comparisons indicated by means of tags. The United Drug Company has advertised its private brands in many cases. It advertises nationally, locally, and by dealer helps. It has made its trade-name "Rexall" known all over the country. Ordinarily, this company pursues a policy of concentrating on one brand and pushing it.

Substitution.—What is meant by substitution? There is a difference of opinion on this point. Some maintain that it is limited to wilful delivery of one package in place of another. Others contend that it is the sales effort of the clerk to induce the customer to "take something just as good." The chain store organizations claimed that it was a fundamental rule never to substitute, but always to give the customer what he wanted if it was in stock and never attempt a sale until after the customer had made his choice. The manufacturers claimed that the bonus which many chains give to their clerks as a reward for selling their own goods made it impossible for the chain to stop substitution even though it desired to do so.

In view of this difference of opinion, the report of an investigation of the Liggett stores in Greater New York, made by J. A. Murphy, representative of *Printers' Ink*, and by the president of a large pharmaceutical company which manufacturers and distributes some 2,000 items, is informative. Report had come from checkers that the Liggett stores were flagrantly practicing substitution, and, with the company in question, substitution was fairly easy because the company had stopped advertising.

All but five or six of the 72 Liggett stores on the list were covered. Mr. Murphy asked either for Baume Analgesique Bengué or Scott's Emulsion. To make matters doubly sure, he often wrote the name of the former product on a slip of paper. The president of the pharmaceutical company asked for his own products. Both men pretended not to know each other.

In the first half-dozen stores requests were made in a brisk and business-like manner. There was absolutely no attempt to substitute or to sell additional merchandise.

In the next group of stores visited, the requests were put in a less positive fashion, something like the following: "A small bottle of Scott's Emulsion. Scott's is the best, isn't it?" The answers varied from "It is a very good brand," "It is the best known," to "We carry several."

The president finally asked a girl why she didn't take advantage of such a good chance to push the brands of the company. She said it was against the rules of the company, and customers must be given what they ask for.

The conclusion is that the only way for the manufacturer to sell his goods in chain stores in competition with the private

brands of the chain organization is to get the public to ask for them. The chain store will sell just what its customers want.

Combination.—One problem remains for discussion in connection with competition between various chains, namely, the tendency of the larger chain to absorb the smaller chain. This is, as the "Principles of Marketing," by Ivey, points out, a simple case of cause and effect. The greater the number of stores the greater the outlets. The greater the outlets the more competition in purchasing. To be able to purchase in large quantities, a chain must have a certain number of outlets, and it may prove far cheaper to purchase or affiliate with another chain already in operation, and in this way at one moment secure this purchasing advantage.

In addition, in order to function properly, a chain must have a certain size. It enables much more efficient standardization of routine management and expenses.

Lastly, there has been an unconscious profiting from one of the chain store principles of growth. The larger the number of member stores the larger the sales per unit store. This is the most potent reason for combination. To go back to the old illustration, the Woolworth stores, which are not affected greatly by prosperity and depression, the following facts are found:

F. W. Woolworth Company

	Number of stores	Total sales	Sales per store
1911	596	$ 52,616,123	$ 88,282
1912	631	60,557,767	95,939
1913	684	66,228,072	96,824
1914	737	69,619,669	94,340
1915	805	75,995,774	94,404
1916	920	87,089,270	94,662
1917	1,000	98,102,857	98,102
1918	1,039	107,179,411	103,156
1919	1,081	119,496,107	110,542
1920	1,111	140,918,981	126,800
1921	1,143	147,654,999	129,181
1922	1,182	167,319,265	143,248
1923	1,260	193,447,010	153,529

The year 1914 was the only year to show a recession over figures of sales per store for the preceding year, and this can perhaps be ascribed to the outbreak of the war and the immediate depressing effect on every type of mercantile activity.

In 1911, sales per store were $88,282. By 1920, sales per store were $126,800, an increase of $38,518 for the average individual store. Three years later, in 1923, this figure had climbed to $153,529, or almost double the volume for 1911.

The principle of increased sales with increased number of units applies elsewhere than in the five-and-ten-cent chain field. For example, the Great Atlantic & Pacific Tea Company, which possesses the largest number of retail stores under its own management, had 1,726 stores in 1915. During that year gross sales were $44,441,000, making sales per unit store in the neighborhood of $25,000. In 1919, there were 4,246 stores, with gross sales of $194,646,000, or over $45,000 for each link in the chain. In 1923, however, with 9,200 stores and gross of over $302,000,000, the sales for the average store had dropped to $32,922. This was largely due to the tremendous number of new stores which had been established during the year, and also because the chain was invading smaller communities where the market did not furnish the same number of potential customers.

The Bases of Chain Store Competition.—Every successful line of business can trace its success to certain policies, to the protection of patents perhaps, or the protection of tariffs. The success of some companies may depend on the personality of the executive. The reasons for chain store superiority lie not so much in the application of one policy as in the application of the combination of many policies.

In order to review some of the main reasons which make it extremely difficult for an independent store to maintain itself in competition with a chain store, and which are the bases for the keen competition in price, service, etc. of one chain store system with another, the following ten reasons are arranged alphabetically, without any attempt to classify them according to their importance.

1. Accounting.
2. Display.
3. Goodwill.
4. Location.
5. Management.
6. Personnel.
7. Price.
8. Purchasing.
9. Sales policy.
10. Turnover.

1. *Accounting.*—Many retail stores keep no accounts and some keep partial accounts; but very few keep full accounts. The whole efficiency of the chain store organization is based on careful accounting. Some companies have spent years in standardizing and rearranging their systems of accounts to make them more perfect.

A proper system of accounting allows the chain executive to know at any moment the state of affairs in his business as a whole and in any particular store. Accounting is a necessity to a chain organization, but to the independent retailer is a luxury which he often feels unable to afford. On this head the chain has marked advantages.

2. *Display.*—A chain organization sells its goods through display, which, it has found, is the easiest and least expensive form of advertising. Each member store is in itself an individual and typical display. Each interior helps to carry out the standard plan. The window trims are arranged by experts who know how to design displays that will make sales.

Lastly, the goods are shown in the best possible fashion, with prices tagged plainly. Contrasted with the independent store, the comparison is all in favor of the chain. When compared with each other, the displays of two chains dealing in the same line of goods often show little difference. But this is a real item in competition, and one in which the independent retailer can profitably take lessons from the chain.

3. *Goodwill.*—Can a chain store exercise so strong an appeal to its customers that they will return regularly? Some say it can, and some say it cannot. Much depends on the location and the character of the clientele passing the store. More depends on the personality of the store as interpreted by the sales force and the general appearance of the premises.

The great value of goodwill lies in the regular customer. This ability to get and hold regular trade is what piles up sales in a store. It has normally been considered that the independent retailer has a monopoly on this goodwill, that by his services and his attentions he can secure and hold a certain percentage of trade. Experience has proved and is proving that the manager of the chain store has at his disposal exactly the same means of pleasing the customer. For example, one of the large grocery

chains has just installed a delivery service delivering for customers on the payment of 10 cents extra. Thus, the customer can often make her purchases at the chain store, have them delivered, and still find her bill less than if she had gone to the independent store.

4. *Location.*—"There is a right place and a wrong place to locate a store," said F. W. Woolworth. "Put your stores where the dollars stick out," says B. H. Kroger, president of the Kroger Grocery and Baking Company. The ability of the chain organizations to pick and choose the spots which make failure next to impossible has been one of their strongest assets in retail competition. It is frequently possible to see three or four chain stores in the same block, all dealing in groceries and all apparently successful. The independent retailer, as a rule, does not know how to locate. He may even shun the good locations because of the proximity of a chain store, so anxious is he to avoid all price comparisons.

5. *Management.*—Chain stores have brains to direct them. This naturally gives them an enormous advantage. They can afford to pay an executive to see that no mistakes are made in policy. The independent retailer has to find this out for himself.

Good management is more than seeing the stores open at eight and close at six. It is more than seeing that all links are functioning properly and that there is no friction. Good management means careful business prediction, the faculty of seeing ahead. It means a thorough grasp of business principles. Business is no longer an empirical enterprise which anyone with a small amount of money may enter. It has become a science, and each phase of business overlaps another phase. Thus, the independent retailer, encompassed as he is in a narrow sphere, is at a marked disadvantage.

6. *Personnel.*—The store managers and the clerks have always been cited as the chain organization's weakest point, and probably this is true. Human nature is difficult to standardize, especially at a distance. It is even more difficult to keep it interested unless there is some strong incentive. Personal profit inspires the interest in the independent retailer. And the chain has borrowed this incentive for its own use. It adds a security against failure which the independent owner can never feel.

If the personnel is the chain's weakest point, everything that can be done towards making it as strong as the rest of the organization is being tried out in different ways by different chains. It seems generally agreed that the manager and possibly the subordinate clerk should participate in earnings. That is, a premium is placed upon the good salesmanship of the clerk and the good management of the store manager.

7. *Price.*—The independent store cannot sell at the same price as the chain store. For many people, this constitutes the strongest reason for the strength of the chain. Why should people pay more at the individual store when they can get the same thing for less money next door?

As time goes on, this question of price will grow even more important than it is now. When competition between chains becomes keener, as it inevitably will, practically the ultimate point of differentiation will be in price. The costs of two chains of approximately the same size will vary little. Whatever economies good management can make will be reflected in the price.

8. *Purchasing.*—The economies of purchasing are all on the side of the chain. The history of the chain movement has been one long rebellion against the middleman's discount and an effort to buy nearer the source. After a long struggle, the combat seems to be settled and most manufacturers agree to sell the chains direct. They cannot afford not to do so.

The independent retailer cannot, as a rule, buy in quantities. He has no place to store surplus supplies, and even if he did have, they would be too old by the time he was ready to sell them. The jobber, therefore, is a necessity as long as the small retailer lasts.

Savings in purchases can generally be passed along to the public. The quantity discount is the independent's chief reason for being unable to meet chain store prices.

9. *Sales Policies.*—The chain organization picks the products that will sell themselves rather than those which have to be sold. It devotes itself to a few lines of goods rather than to a great many. The goods which are sold are generally staple articles. Every article must prove itself before being allowed a permanent place on the shelves.

10. *Turnover.*—The chain store has found that profits from selling are derived from turning goods quickly at a low profit rather than seldom at a high profit. The independent retailer in many cases has not discovered this. It is, or should be, a rule in the chain store that no goods should be allowed to stay on the shelves beyond a certain time, varying of course, with the nature of the product. If they do not sell, they must be moved at any price. Perhaps some other store can sell them. If not, the price must be lowered.

Conclusions.—Not all the phases of competition have been exhausted in this chapter. Only those have been discussed which have seemed to refer most specifically to the chain store and its sales problems. From an analysis of the essentials of chain store competition it appears that there is nothing phenomenal about it. It is, in the last analysis, nothing more than the scientific application of business principles to the problems of retailing. The remarkable fact is that the rise of the chain store came so late. The extent and the rapidity of its growth have shown the economic need which existed in the community at large.

The analysis of competition is both an executive and a local function. The executive must measure the strength of his competition collectively in the territory in which his chain operates. The local manager must analyze the character of the particular specific competition, which he must confront. In every case the result aimed at and, in the majority of cases attained, by the chain store is: "The public be pleased." The chain store exercises a retailing function and its success must be measured finally by the degree of public approbation of its executive and its merchandising policies.

CHAPTER IX

PRICING AND TURNOVER

Outline

Theory of pricing:
1. Fallacy of old theory of charging all product will bring.
2. Proper pricing:
   (*a*) Determination of by:
      (1) Purchase price paid by chain.
      (2) Share of overhead expense.
      (3) Share of selling expense.
   (*b*) Possible to obtain by:
      (1) Economic purchasing.
      (2) Minimum overhead expense.
      (3) Efficient retail store management and accounting.
3. Methods of pricing in vogue:
   (*a*) Cost of goods plus share of overhead and selling expense plus necessary percentage of profit.
   (*b*) Price maintained on main stock but loss leaders offered.
   (*c*) Cut prices.

Price range:
1. Normally low.
2. Policy of decreasing unit size in periods of increasing prices.
3. Prices standardized throughout chain:
   (*a*) Exceptions.
4. Putting price changes into effect:
   (*a*) Regular intervals or immediately.

Principles of turnover:
1. Keep stock turning.
2. Keep every line turning.
3. Make profit on every line.

Increasing turnover:
1. Increasing rate of sales while stock remains same.
2. Price cutting.
3. Shifting goods.

Rate of turnover necessary:
1. Dependent on:
   (*a*) Keeping quality of product.
   (*b*) Capacity of store.
   (*c*) Price at which sold.

2. Setting turnover quota for managers:
   (*a*) Supplying managers with past records in their stores.
   (*b*) Importance of turnover in:
      (1) Seasonal goods.
      (2) Style lines.

Securing adequate turnover:

1. Careful purchasing of goods.
2. Efficient merchandising policy.
3. Cooperation of the personnel.
4. Careful inventory system.

CHAPTER IX

PRICING AND TURNOVER

Profits in chain store retailing are largely determined by the selling price and the rate of turnover. In the careful adjustment of these two factors lies one of the secrets of chain store success.

The price at which a product can be sold is or should be determined automatically by:

1. The purchase price paid by the chain.
2. The share of overhead expense.
3. The share of selling expense.

It is evident, therefore, that a low selling price can be reached only by:

1. Economical purchasing.
2. Minimum overhead expenses.
3. Efficient retail store management and accounting.

But the rate of turnover exercises a modifying influence on all the above factors. By "turnover" is meant stock turnover, that is, the number of times the money invested in merchandise is liquidated and reinvested during a year. Obviously, the larger the turnover the more profits and, consequently, the lower the selling price which can be set.

A large turnover is secured by:

1. Careful purchasing of goods and products that will sell readily.
2. An efficient merchandising policy.
3. The cooperation of the personnel.
4. A careful inventory system.

A large turnover, however, will not bring large profits unless the selling price is high enough to carry the overhead and other charges against it. Thus, in a cut-price war, an enormous turnover may bring enormous losses. But it is obvious that the larger the turnover the less profit it is necessary to make on each sale to obtain an aggregate profit satisfactory to everyone.

The Theory of Pricing.—In the old days, and even now among many retailers, the custom is to mark goods at whatever prices it is thought they will bring. Probably everyone has gone into a store, priced an article, found it too high, and been on the point of leaving the store, when the proprietor said: "Well, I guess I can let you have it for a little less." Charging the public what it will pay, or, in other words, profiteering, is a crime which can be laid at the doors of few chain stores. The policy of chain stores is to deal only in those products which can be sold at a profit, no matter how small. Loss leaders, which in the majority of cases are not losses, result in increased profits because they increase turnover.

R. C. Swanton, general auditor of the Winchester Repeating Arms Company, has explained the theory of marking up goods from cost price so plainly that the following is paraphrased from one of his articles in the *Winchester Herald*, the house organ of that company:

Mark-up is the amount added to the cost of merchandise to cover operating expenses and a profit. It is controlled in its upward trend by competition, and may be controlled in its downward trend by the use of accounting figures. The expense of doing business, which is the largest outlay of money outside of the actual purchase cost of the goods, must be covered in setting the sales price, before a profit can be taken. Capital invested in stock is entitled to a net profit on every sales transaction.

Figure 13 is an analysis of departmental reports. The average mark-up for the total sales of all departments, to obtain an average net profit of 13 per cent, must be 56.7 per cent, while the average mark-up to obtain a net profit of 9.6 per cent on the tool department must be 47.4 per cent. This does not mean that each item in the tool classification is so marked up. Some may be marked up 75 per cent, but a study of this statement shows that if the merchant marked up at this lower figure he would sustain a loss on each article, and that he would sustain a loss on each sale marked up at less than 33 per cent, because the ratio of the store's operating expense is higher than the mark-up; therefore, if the merchant decides, and trade conditions are favorable, to take a net profit of 10 per cent, his safe low limit of mark-up on all merchandise in this class would be 47 per cent.

Mark-up is based on cost of goods and gross profit on returns from sales. Gross profit is the difference between cost of goods sold and the mark-up price obtained. This amount, in ratio to the sales price, gives

the gross profit percentage. Referring to the illustration, goods in the tool department took an average mark-up of 47 per cent and obtained an average gross profit of 32 per cent. For instance, let us assume an item in the tool classification:

Cost to the merchant	$1.00
Plus	47% mark-up
Equals	$1.47 sales price

The difference between the cost and the sales price is 47 cents, which, divided by the sales price of $1.47, leaves a gross profit of 32 per cent. Assuming that the overhead expense of making a sale is 21 per cent, this deducted from the gross profit leaves a net profit, or an income on capital invested in the article, of 11 per cent on the sale. Much trouble is encountered because of the confusing of mark-up with gross profits. Remember that gross profit is based on sales; mark-up is based on and added to cost.

Methods of Pricing.—Goods may be charged to retail stores at either wholesale or retail prices. In the majority of cases goods are charged at retail, so that the member store will have but one price to consider, and that price the one at which the goods are to be sold to customers. It also simplifies accounting methods.

Where a chain conducts a wholesale business or sells to agencies, it frequently bills goods to its own stores at wholesale prices. If they were to bill their goods to their own store at retail prices and to agencies at wholesale prices, it would mean maintaining two systems, and would cause much confusion.

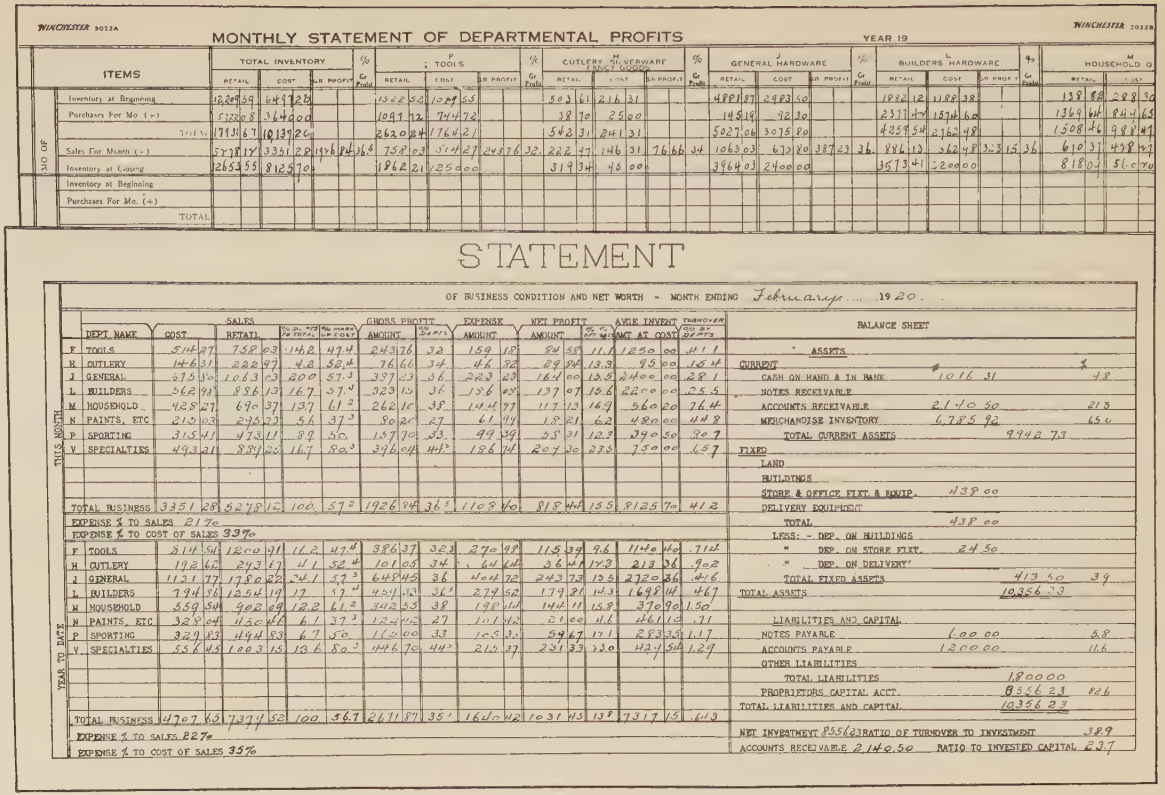
Several methods of retail pricing are in vogue:

1. The logical and ordinary method of fixing the price of all goods at a certain percentage over the purchase price and the overhead and selling expenses.

2. Maintaining prices according to the first system, but each week running a list of loss leaders at cost or fractional profit.

3. Selling at competitor's prices, or below them, a practice which leads to cut-price wars and the elimination of the weakest competitors.

Where operating and selling expenses are standardized down to the last degree, there is not much difference in the price at which the various chains can afford to sell the majority of their



WINCHESTER 3022A

MONTHLY STATEMENT OF DEPARTMENTAL PROFITS

YEAR 19

WINCHESTER 3022B

ITEMS	TOTAL INVENTORY RETAIL	TOTAL INVENTORY COST	TOTAL INVENTORY GR PROFIT	% Gr Profit	F TOOLS RETAIL	F TOOLS COST	F TOOLS GR PROFIT	% Gr Profit	H CUTLERY SILVERWARE FANCY GOODS RETAIL	H COST	H GR PROFIT	% Gr Profit	J GENERAL HARDWARE RETAIL	J COST	J GR PROFIT	% Gr Profit	L BUILDERS HARDWARE RETAIL	L COST	L GR PROFIT	% Gr Profit	M HOUSEHOLD G RETAIL	M COST
Inventory at Beginning	1829 59	649 28			1322 52	1047 65			503 61	216 31			4881 87	2983 50			1882 12	1188 38			1388 88	288 50
Purchases For Mo (+)	1513 08	364 00			1099 72	744 72			38 70	25 00			145 19	92 30			2371 44	1574 60			1364 44	844 65
Total	1793 67	1013 28			2622 24	1764 21			542 31	241 31			5027 06	3075 80			4253 56	2762 98			1508 46	988 47
Sales For Month (-)	577 81	335 28	242 53	42	758 03	514 27	243 76	32	222 47	146 31	76 16	34	1063 03	675 80	387 23	36	886 13	562 98	323 15	36	610 31	428 47
Inventory at Closing	1265 55	812 57			1862 21	1250 00			319 34	45 00			3964 03	2400 00			3573 41	2200 00			818 03	560 00
Inventory at Beginning																						
Purchases For Mo. (+)																						
TOTAL																						

SIO OF

STATEMENT

OF BUSINESS CONDITION AND NET WORTH - MONTH ENDING February 29 .... 1920.

THIS MONTH

DEPT	NAME	SALES COST	SALES RETAIL	% to TOT	% MARK UP COST	% MARK DOWN	GROSS PROFIT AMOUNT	%	EXPENSE AMOUNT	%	NET PROFIT AMOUNT	%	% Gr Profit	AVGE INVENT AMT AT COST	TURNOVER TIMES BY DEPTS
F	TOOLS	514 27	758 03	142	47 4		243 76	32	159 18		84 58	11 1		1250 00	411
H	CUTLERY	146 31	222 97	42	52 4		76 66	34	46 82		29 84	13 3		93 00	164
J	GENERAL	675 80	1063 03	200	57 3		387 23	36	220 23		167 00	15 5		2400 00	281
L	BUILDERS	562 98	886 13	167	57 4		323 15	36	186 25		137 07	15 4		2200 00	25 5
M	HOUSEHOLD	428 27	670 37	137	61 2		242 10	36	144 97		117 13	16 9		560 20	764
N	PAINTS, ETC	210 03	345 33	56	37 3		80 25	27	61 44		18 81	6 2		480 00	448
P	SPORTING	315 41	473 11	89	50		157 70	33	99 39		58 31	12 3		390 50	507
V	SPECIALTIES	493 21	887 22	167	80 3		394 01	44 3	186 74		207 30	23 3		750 00	657
	TOTAL BUSINESS	3351 28	5278 12	100	57 2		1926 84	36 5	1108 40		818 44	15 5		8125 70	412
	EXPENSE % TO SALES 21%														
	EXPENSE % TO COST OF SALES 33%														
F	TOOLS	814 54	1280 41	11 2	47 4		386 37	32 3	270 98		115 39	9 6		1140 40	711
H	CUTLERY	198 62	243 67	41	52 4		101 05	34	64 44		36 61	12 3		213 36	902
J	GENERAL	1121 77	1780 82	241	57 3		648 45	36	404 72		243 73	13 5		2720 86	416
L	BUILDERS	794 56	1254 19	17	57 4		459 63	36 5	279 62		179 81	14 3		1698 14	467
M	HOUSEHOLD	559 54	902 09	122	61 2		342 55	38	198 11		144 11	15 8		370 90	150
N	PAINTS, ETC	328 04	436 44	61	37 3		124 12	27	101 42		21 00	4 6		461 10	71
P	SPORTING	329 43	494 83	67	50		165 00	33	109 33		54 67	11 1		283 33	1.17
V	SPECIALTIES	556 45	1003 15	136	80 3		446 70	44 3	215 33		231 33	23 0		424 50	1.29
	TOTAL BUSINESS	4702 63	7374 52	100	56 7		2681 87	36 1	1640 42		1031 43	13 8		7317 15	643
	EXPENSE % TO SALES 22%														
	EXPENSE % TO COST OF SALES 35%														

YEAR TO DATE

BALANCE SHEET

ASSETS		
CURRENT		%
CASH ON HAND & IN BANK	1016 31	7.8
NOTES RECEIVABLE		
ACCOUNTS RECEIVABLE	2140 50	21.3
MERCHANDISE INVENTORY	6785 92	65.4
TOTAL CURRENT ASSETS	9942 73	
FIXED		
LAND		
BUILDINGS		
STORE & OFFICE FIXT. & EQUIP.	438 00	
DELIVERY EQUIPMENT		
TOTAL	438 00	
LESS: - DEP. ON BUILDINGS		
" DEP. ON STORE FIXT.	24 50	
" DEP. ON DELIVERY		
TOTAL FIXED ASSETS	413 50	3.9
TOTAL ASSETS	10356 23	
LIABILITIES AND CAPITAL		
NOTES PAYABLE	600 00	5.8
ACCOUNTS PAYABLE	1200 00	11.6
OTHER LIABILITIES		
TOTAL LIABILITIES	1800 00	
PROPRIETORS CAPITAL ACCT.	8556 23	82.6
TOTAL LIABILITIES AND CAPITAL	10356 23	
NET INVESTMENT 8556.23 RATIO OF TURNOVER TO INVESTMENT		3.9
ACCOUNTS RECEIVABLE 2,140.50 RATIO TO INVESTED CAPITAL		23.7

FIG. 13.—Monthly statement showing control of pricing and mark-up. (*Winchester Herald, April*, 1920.)

products. Some merchandising expedient, some quirk of efficiency, may pull them ahead for a moment, but the rest of the field gradually draws abreast again, since chain competition is essentially a competition of price.

The Price Range.—The chain stores, as has been mentioned before, generally concentrate on staple-, low-, and medium-priced merchandise, because it is in this class of products that the largest turnover is obtainable, and these products are sold to the class of people to whom the price of the article makes a great deal of difference.

The war brought about very interesting conditions in the chain store field. Before that time, when biscuits, chewing gum, cigars, hats, shirts, and innumerable articles could be featured at a standard price, it gave chain shops something upon which to build a reputation. A dollar watch or a dollar shirt or a 5-cent cigar gave the customer something to remember.

In the short history of the chain store movement, the war was the first major economic upheaval which upset this standard price. Nowhere was this more evident than in the five-and-ten-cent store field. For some time previous to the war, the merchandise assortment of the five-and-ten-cent stores had begun to narrow. The days when Butler Brothers had been able to offer more than 120,000 articles to be retailed at 5 and 10 cents were past. When the war came, it caused a break-away from the old, 5-, 10-, 25-cent limit. Most variety chains found they could not offer a large enough assortment to get the required turnover. Woolworth clung to the old policy by decreasing the units. The size was made smaller—less candy was sold for 10 cents; matches which had been 1 cent a box were 5 cents; things were sold separately, one stocking for 10 cents, the pail 10 cents and the cover 10. To the amazement of its competitors and the public, the Woolworth chain was able to come through without changing its traditional 10-cent limit.

Those variety chains which have broken away show as yet no tendency to revert to the old system. While keeping their lower-priced lines as intact as possible, the variety of stock was increased. It was known that sales for less than $1 predominate in any department store, and the Kresge chain acted on that theory with great success. Tinware, crockery, and household

lines gave way to dry goods, with a tendency, however, to keep away from piece goods.

Generally, the prices of goods in all stores in one chain are standardized, except that some chains make a difference for stores west of the Mississippi. The United Cigar Stores have only one price, and this price is the same for one cigar or a hundred of the same brand.

Managers may be allowed to make their own prices on local purchases. One grocery chain management says:

> All our prices are standardized throughout the chain. The only exception to this rule is in green vegetables, dried meats, cottage cheese, and other items which each store manager buys for himself and on which he bases his own prices. A store three miles away from the markets naturally is entitled to a little longer price on lettuce and celery than a store downtown which can restock its green-goods counter at any time during the day. Also, in the three-mile-away store, the manager runs a larger risk of not selling out all his vegetables. He has to add enough margin of profit to insure himself against loss.

The question of cutting prices is a matter of individual policy. Some stores never cut. The Penney practice is to put the price on an article and never mark it down. The American Stores Company cuts prices on its goods when it deems it sound merchandising policy to do so.

Turnover.—How many times must merchandise be turned to make a profit? If this question could be answered specifically, much worry would be saved retailers. But, as a matter of fact, turnover differs widely. It is generally larger in the chain store than in the independent store, and larger in the grocery, tobacco, and drug chains than in the dry goods and "five and tens."

Just what is meant by turnover? Ordinarily speaking, turnover, to the manager of a chain store, means the number of times the money invested in stock can be liquidated and reinvested during the year.

Mr. Swanton, of the Winchester Stores, says:

> One of the common mistakes in figuring turnover is this—you will hear many merchants say: "My sales are $200,000 this year. My inventory is $50,000. I have turned over four times, because $200,000

is four times my inventory figures." Turnover must be figured as the cost of goods sold to the cost value of inventory. Take the case just quoted. If this merchant should sell $200,000 worth of merchandise in all departments of his business, and his average mark-up was 57 per cent, his cost of goods sold would be $200,000, less mark-up figure, which would be $127,000. This amount, divided by his average inventory, say $50,000, would equal two and one-half times turnover and not four times turnover.

The value of turnover analysis to the chain is that it keeps a constant check on the articles which show profit and those which do not. The great secret of success in chain stores is to keep the stock turning, to keep every line selling, and to make a profit on every line. A chain would rather be out of a certain product, and permit the customer to go somewhere else, than to carry it if it is losing money. This explains, according to F. J. Arkins, of the Alexander Hamilton Institute, the reason why, in order not to lose money, as soon as it is discovered that a particular line is moving too slowly, prices are reduced and bargains featured. If the first reduction in price does not attract attention, the reductions continue until a market is found for the articles. The whole effort is to move that particular line out of stock as rapidly as possible, and, if it is necessary to take a loss, to get the loss behind the chain at the earliest possible moment. The idea is not new or untried. It was a principle established by A. T. Stewart, in the merchandising of dry goods in New York, in the early part of the last century.

It was the strict pursuance of this policy of keeping up turnover that allowed the great majority of chain organizations to liquidate without the enormous losses which many retailers experienced in the post-war deflationary period through holding on to their stocks rather than cutting prices before it was too late.

Analysis of Turnover.—A slow turnover involves waste and expense. In some cases the damage is apparent at first sight, but in others it lies deeper and must be analyzed. The Chamber of Commerce of the United States has divided the elements of waste due to slow turnover into the following classes:

1. Investment.
2. Interest.
3. Mark-down.

4. Salaries and wages.
5. Shelf or storage room.
6. Prestige and reputation.
7. Inefficiency.

Taking them up individually:

1. The amount of goods in stock and the amount of time these goods must be carried before they are sold determine the profit, assuming mark-up is the same. Naturally, the more frequent the turnover the larger the profit on the same investment.

2. As few chain stores are borrowers, the interest charges would rarely enter the turnover equation. With many independent retailers, however, interest becomes of great importance.

3. The necessity of marking goods down is ordinarily a sign of poor turnover, which, in turn, might have been due to overbuying, too high a price, or lack of demand.

4. Naturally, sales expense is increased with slow turnovers, since the same sales force, more efficiently managed, could sell in six months what actually sells in a year.

5. Shelf or storage room is too valuable to be taken up by slow-moving goods.

6. The reputation of the store suffers if it is known to have a large stock of old goods.

7. Overbuying is ordinarily a dangerous policy. Except when there are extraordinary conditions, fresh supplies can be obtained at short notice; but an oversupply of goods cannot be so easily disposed of. Hence, the whole chain of evils arising from slow turnover will occur.

Figure 14 shows graphically two ways of illustrating the profits due to more frequent turnovers:

Each of the columns in series A represents sales amounting to $100,000, but the number of turnovers increases from 1 in A–1 to 8 in A–4, and it will be observed that, with each increase in turnover, the stock investment as well as the interest are cut in two, while the amount of profit increases.

Series B shows uniform stock investments and costs of interest throughout, while the amount of profit increases with the number of turnovers.

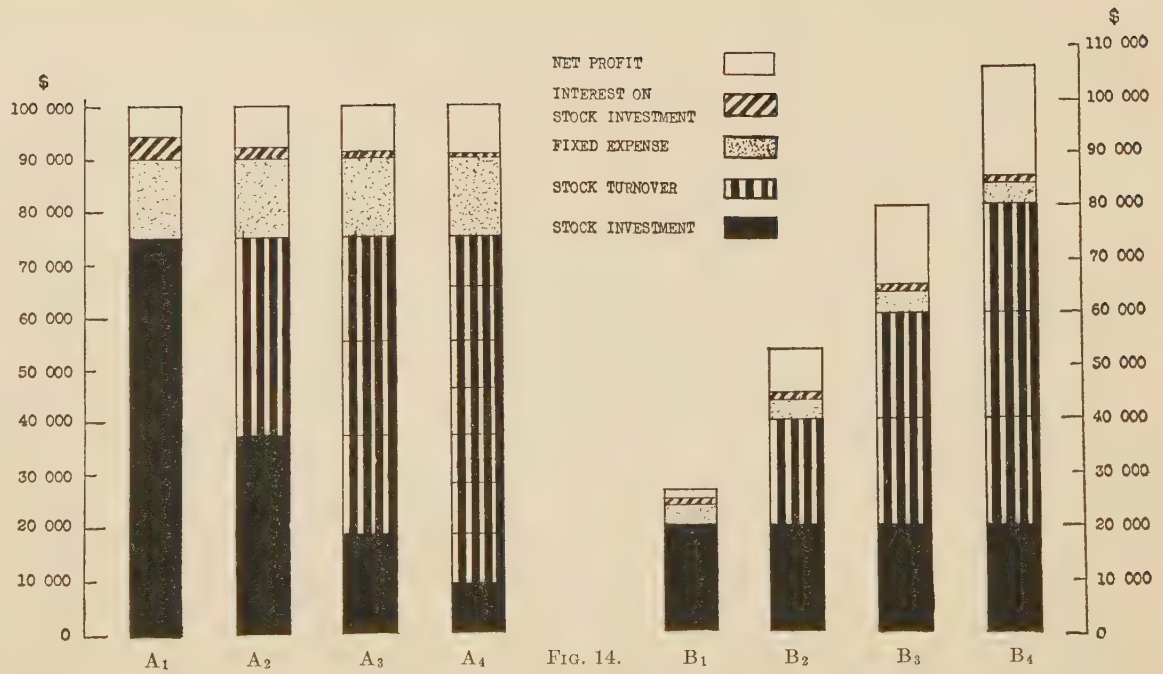


FIG. 14.

Series A is based on a given period and shows how the investment and interest grow less while the profit increases.

Series B is based on a given investment so that the interest also remains the same although the profit increases.

(*Chamber of Commerce of the United States.*

Series A proves the decreased investment needed to perform a given amount of business, while Series B proves the increased business and profits which accrue to the same investment upon a multiplied turnover.

Increasing Turnover.—It is possible to increase stock turnover in two ways:

1. Sales may be increased while the amount of stock remains practically the same or increases at a rate below that at which sales are increasing. This method is the ordinary one and is perfectly safe, since it is based on sound merchandising principles.

2. The second method is to cut the price. As one authority on the subject points out, by reducing the price more people are included in the group of purchasers, since more people are able to purchase an article at $1 than at $2.

Price cutting, however, is a dangerous operation. If everybody cuts prices, total sales may not be appreciably increased, while profits will fall off dangerously.

Price cutting of staples rarely does any good except as a loss leader. People buy staples—sugar, flour, coal—even though the price is high, and a reduction in price will not increase their consumption proportionately. Some merchants keep close track of sales on these non-profit items, such as sugar. In the Sam. Seelig stores in California, the average proportion of sugar sales to gross sales is 10 per cent. If one of the stores shows sales of 12, 15 or even 18 per cent there is manifestly something wrong. That is, sales are not merely dollars and cents. If two stores each sell $1,000 worth of goods, it is quite possible for one to earn a great deal more than the other, given the same overhead. One store may sell too large a proportion of non-profit staples.

Staples are essentially inert. The profit comes in selling articles for which demand is not steady, but can be created. The most reliable business is that which is neither too elastic nor too inelastic, and it is precisely this class of goods in which the chain store deals.

Rate of Turnover.—There is no standard rate of turnover. That for each store is slightly different, and some stores, even in the same chain, vary a great deal. The turnover may vary with the different years, the stock carried, the local manager, etc. Some of the Penney stores turn their stock ten times a year, but the

average is between four and six. Some of the United Cigar stores are said to turn their stocks 50 times a year. A five-and-ten-cent store must secure at least six turnovers a year to be successful, and the large chains do better than this.

Figure 15 shows minimum turnovers for some types of goods, the jewelry turnover being so low that no chains have ever been organized successfully in this field. These figures should be taken as the approximate rate of turnover only, in any of

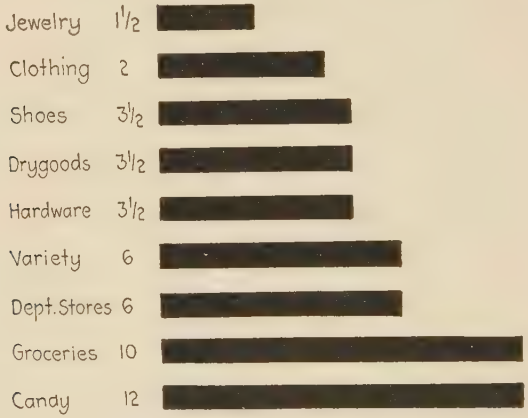


FIG. 15.—Average turnover in various lines of merchandise.

these fields. They are intended merely to give some comparative idea of turnovers in the various lines.

Coming to turnover in a particular line of business, it is found that articles generally have a relation to each other in rate of sales, and that these can be computed with fair accuracy. One of the large drug chains, for example, has set certain turnover requirements:

Soda	52
Candy	20
Cigars	15
Merchandise	8
Total turnover	10

It endeavors to keep the store managers constantly alive to their stock-turnover proposition and to make them see how

important it is that, when the inventory is taken, it should closely agree with the yearly turnover desired.

Turnover is especially necessary in candy and cigars, because proper turnover in those lines has a large influence on sales. People like candy and cigars fresh. Patent medicines allow a more rapid turnover than drugs. Rubber goods need exceptional care, since although overbuying is harmful, underbuying and lost sales are even more harmful to the gross profit average because goods of this nature bring an exceptionally good return. The Liggett chain tries to steer a middle course and not lose sight of the fact that annual turnover in the store must show ten times or better. Toilet articles, perfumes, and novelties more often defeat plans for a proper turnover than any other class of drug merchandise. Managers are cautioned to use extreme care in stocking these lines.

According to Mr. Beckmann, of the National Chain Store Grocery Association, the turnover figures in grocery lines are startling in their differences. The average retail grocer turns his goods perhaps 12 times a year, while the chain store turns them from 36 to 50 times, according to actual record. The wholesaling end of the chain store—that is, the department analogous to the grocery jobber—shows a turnover of from 14 to 18, while the turnover of the ordinary wholesale grocer is from six to eight times.

Securing Turnover in All Lines.—The average independent retailers constantly bring down their turnover averages because of the large amount of goods on their shelves which either do not sell at all, or sell so rarely as to make it unprofitable to carry them.

Chain stores go on the principle that all goods carried must sell. If reductions in price do not dispose of them, the chain makes use of its distribution and concentrates the articles where they do sell. Some store in the chain can generally be found which will sell a product which no inducement to the public can move from another store in the chain.

If a drop in price is known to be coming, or because it is near the end of the season, chain groceries hold off from purchasing, and transfer goods from the stores that cannot sell them to the stores that can. In this way they make sure that no "shelf

warmers" will be in the way at any store when the anticipated change takes place.

To stimulate the store manager, quotas are often made from the records at the central office and sent out to him, showing what his total sales for the month should be and perhaps indicating turnover in various lines. Thus the store manager knows at all times exactly where he stands and whether he is improving or running behind previous averages. The merchandise turnover of the chain as a whole depends more or less on the purchasing policy, but in many chains the store manager has it in his power to regulate turnover to a great extent. That is, he selects from the lists sent him those articles he can sell.

The United Cigar Stores Company ships its stores every week a quota of supplies which must be sold. Turnover is especially important in seasonal goods and style lines. Failure to turn these goods promptly may change profits into losses.

Turnover and Business Conditions.—It is difficult to resist the temptation of purchasing in advance of a rising market. Yet time and again the soundness of the principle of selling at cost plus has been demonstrated, and the folly of purchasing far in advance of actual requirements. Sharp lifts in price may be met by a grumbling purchaser, but he will remember this in the future. The chain stores consistently build up a background of goodwill by their price policy until the public feels confident that it is not being cheated.

As an example of the soundness of chain policies, the prices of merchandise in the United States declined from 25 to 40 per cent in the United States during 1921, while the value of sales in the chain grocery stores declined only 16 per cent. This shows that actual sales volume must have increased. But, as groceries belonging to chains deal mainly in staple articles, the increased turnover must have taken place directly at the expense of independent grocers whose hold on the goodwill of the public was not strong enough to withstand a period of depression.

Charles E. Merrill, of Merrill, Lynch & Company, a banking firm which has financed six of the large chain systems, says:

> During the first half of 1921, the decrease in sales prices was so rapid that the problem was to take in enough for operating expenses. This was accomplished by great economies. As a result, the chain stores

are making more money than they were a year ago when high prices prevailed.

The price declines in the five-and-ten-cent stores have been nearly as drastic as in the grocery stores. By an increase in the rapidity of turnover, however, the five-and-ten-cent chains have been able to sidestep losses which occurred to others during the price decline.

The remarkable point about this situation is that, by increasing turnover in a period of unprecedented deflation, chains like Woolworth and Kresge were able to make as much money as in previous years. It illustrates forcefully the practical advantages of turnover and the irresistible attraction of price as a basis of competition in hard times.

Conclusions.—"Small profits on an article will become big if you sell enough of the article" was one of Frank W. Woolworth's maxims. In these few words he summed up the principles of pricing and turnover. The chain of stores which he founded has steadily carried out the policy which he commenced, and was the only chain to remain proof against the difficult problems which had to be met in the period of war and in the post-war deflation.

It is only necessary to add to the above statement that turnover must be distributed among all the stock and the fundamental statement is complete. One of the greatest, if not the greatest, reasons for the chain store's preeminence in the retail field is the careful observance of this policy of pricing and turnover. In a way, the necessity of securing turnover insures a reasonable price to the consumer, but it is only by the proper correlation of these two factors that the most efficient results are obtained.

CHAPTER X

EXPENSES AND PROFITS

Outline

Cost of doing business:
1. Dependent on:
   (*a*) Policy.
   (*b*) Size.
   (*c*) Product.
   (*d*) Location.
2. Detailed expenses:
   (*a*) Salary largest.
   (*b*) Rent next.
3. Savings in expense:
   (*a*) Elimination of deliveries.
   (*b*) Cash-and-carry policy.
   (*c*) Standardization of method.
   (*d*) Elimination of waste.
4. Overhead:
   (*a*) Decreased by:
      (1) Increased volume of sales.
      (2) Addition of new retail links.
      (3) Efficient management.

The cash-and-carry policy:
1. Eliminates bad debts.
2. Enables chain to discount purchases immediately.
3. Simplifies accounting.
4. Saves time verifying accounts, making out charge slips, etc.

Gross profits:
1. Increase normally:
   (*a*) Through addition of new links.
   (*b*) Through increased sales in old links.
   (*c*) Through improved merchandising methods:
      (1) Further standardization.

Store profits:
1. Dependent on:
   (*a*) Location of store.
   (*b*) Ability of manager.
   (*c*) Turnover of products.
   (*d*) Efficient supervision by headquarters.

2. Advisability of abandoning unprofitable sites.

Increasing profits:

1. Increasing turnover.
2. Increasing average sale:
   (*a*) Interdependence of cost of product and average sale.
3. Odd-cent profits.
4. Profits made by local managers.

CHAPTER XI

EXPENSES AND PROFITS

In spite of large overhead expenses for highly paid executives, specialists in window trimming, merchandising ideas, purchasing, etc., the chain stores manage to do business at an average cost less than the majority of their independent competitors. "Why is this so?" is the constant query of the independent retailer, and he is told to imitate the chain, whereupon he seems to be no better off then before. He is told to standardize his accounting methods, increase his turnover, eliminate credit and deliveries, move to another part of town where the location is better, sell only stock the public wishes, etc. And because he cannot do these things he sets up a clamor about unfair competition and secret discounts. The truth of the matter is that the chain is an organization of individuals whose combined intellects form a far more powerful force than the average single individual running an independent store can command. The store manager is the personal representative of an impersonal organization; the independent store owner is the personal representative of a personal business.

Probably the greatest factor in keeping down chain expenses is a careful accounting system. Every dollar that comes in bears a certain charge against it, determined by long experience and careful records. Policies that do not pay are ruthlessly abandoned on the graphic evidence of their failure to make good. If a chain finds some particular location does not bring in enough business to carry the overhead and earn a profit, that store is promptly discontinued. Losses are minimized. No old goods are allowed to remain in stock, taking up room and eating up profits. It is a combination of business initative and system which keeps down chain store expenses and enlarges net profits.

The Cost of Doing Business.—The variations in the actual cost of doing business are wide. They are dependent on so many factors of policy, of size, of line of goods carried, of location of

stores, etc., that the matter can be treated only suggestively, by stating a few of the general principles, and supporting them by concrete examples from stores in several lines.

The following table is made up from information from a number of sources, and is not intended to be authoritative or complete, but is merely illustrative of the effect of the product on costs.

Cost of Doing Business

	Per Cent
Drugs	22–30
Tobacco	8–20
Dry goods	10–25
Groceries	4–15
Variety	18–25
Shoes	18–25

Groceries and tobacco, for which the turnover is very rapid, can usually bring operating expenses to the lowest. The Penney organization, with a 10 to 12 per cent operating expense, is unique in the dry goods line when compared with 20 per cent for independent retailers in direct competition with them.

Detailed Expenses.—The merchandising department of the *New York World* supplies the following average figures on chain store costs.

	Per Cent
Average rental	8
Average help	15
Average loss and depreciation	1
Average light, maintenance	2½
Average overhead	3
Total	29½

The Piggly Wiggly stores present by far the lowest operating costs of any figures available. In the week ending October 6, 1917, the net sales of nine stores operating in Memphis were $25,429.90. The cost of doing business during that same period was $795.11. The average cost of doing business was 3.12 per cent.

The expense total was made up as follows:

Insurance	$ 13.70
Salaries	494.85
Ice	46.20
Light	21.74
Rent	180.92
Sundries	24.32
Telephone	11.81
Water	1.67
Total	$795.11

Salaries are the largest item of expense, and efforts to economize along this line generally result disastrously, especially when it is considered that so much of the chain's prosperity lies in the hands of the store managers. Rent is generally the next item. This must be carefully watched. For example, in the United Cigar Stores, where every item is figured in percentages, it is immediately possible to point to a store paying too much rent. If Kansas City were paying 8 per cent for rent, there would be an immediate investigation.

Elimination of delivery and credit accounts, together with a small amount of advertising, are the largest factors in decreasing chain store expenses, as compared with independent retailers. The salary percentage, as a rule, is higher. From 2 to 5 per cent is saved on deliveries and perhaps one-half of 1 per cent on bad debts.

Figure 16 shows a comparison of expenses between the five-and-ten-cent store and the drug store. The first three items, salaries, rent, and advertising, in both cases follow the same order. Heat and light in a five-and-ten-cent store, owing to the larger unit size, would naturally be double that of a drug store.

Few chains are willing to disclose their operating costs from a just reluctance to discuss their particular methods of effecting operating economy. It must not be supposed, however, that profits are determined by the cost of doing business. This figure with its components is merely the index number which points out to the executive how this one factor in profits, control of operating expense, stands at the moment.

Overhead.—Overhead shows broad variations. In periods of prosperity, when sales are large, overhead goes down. When sales fall off, overhead increases. Overhead is inelastic in most of its items, and is slow to react to business conditions generally. Where all buying is done at headquarters, overhead is apt to be larger than where local managers have some buying responsibility.

George H. Bushnell, vice-president and comptroller of the J. C. Penney Company, once stated that each store was charged a fixed percentage on sales each month for the maintenance of the

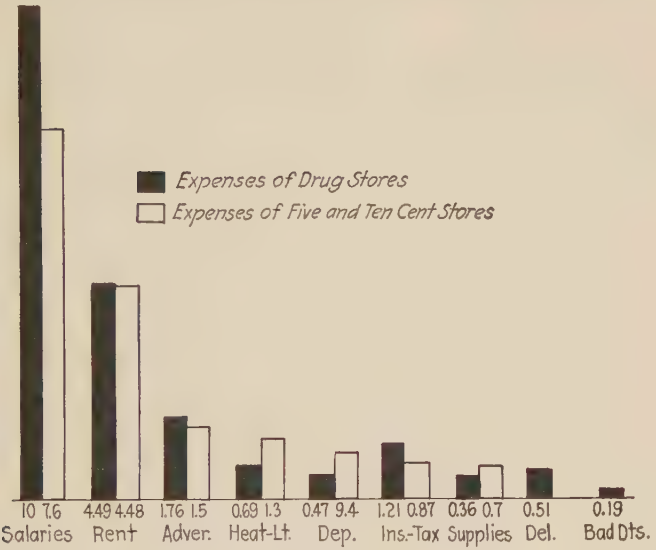


FIG. 16.—Comparison of expenses of five-and-ten-cent stores with those of drug chain stores.

central offices. This takes care of rent, salaries, traveling expenses for officials, etc. In 1918, this percentage was 1.4 per cent which included cost of accounting for 197 stores operated at that time. Accounting was only two-fifths of 1 per cent. This percentage for 1918 absorbed all the corporation taxes assessed against the stores.

Again, the vice-president of a large drug company said: "We aim to keep overhead at 8 per cent of gross volume, including salaries of general officers, rent, traveling, auditors, sales

managers, etc." The executive of another chain of 250 stores claimed his overhead expenses had been going down every year. For the first year or two it ran up to 10 per cent and since then had declined at the rate of about 1 per cent annually. In 1918 it was 3 per cent.

Overhead decreases with the number of member stores operated. A new retail link in the chain requires little addition to the chain overhead. Thus, small chains normally have larger overhead expenses than the larger ones. The whole matter, of course, is dependent on efficient management. Large salaries paid to executives do not necessarily mean great overhead, because the expense is so broadly distributed, and the profits accruing from the benefits of having these high-salaried executives at the head of the business are so large that the entire sum appears small.

Keeping Expenses Down.—Ask the proprietor of an ordinary retail store what his expenses are and he may be able to tell you, but probably he will not. The executive of a chain can tell almost instantly just what the expenses of the chain as a whole are and the expense of each of his stores. Expenses are kept down and should be kept down by unceasing supervision. The variations in expense between stores of the same size that have obtained their normal volume of business are not, as a rule, very great. In a new store, of course, which has no definite clientele, and is not known, etc., there is a high initial overhead which comes down to normal as the store becomes established.

In one drug chain all the store managers are given a bonus of $25 a month if they can succeed in holding their expenses, outside of rent and advertising, down to 15 per cent of their sales. Rent and advertising are eliminated because the selection of the location and the rent paid are not controlled by the store manager. This, of course is true in almost all chains.

All percentages used in making up the bonus are computed according to the sales volume of the store.

	Per Cent
Salaries and commissions	10
Light, heat, water	1½
Contingent, renewal, expenses	1½
Supplies	2
Total	15

Many of the store managers earn the bonus every month, since this 15 per cent is computed on the average of all stores, and many managers find it possible to surpass this average. It can be done by getting more volume of sales and turnover, or actually decreasing some of their expenses. These store managers, in addition to the actual cash bonus, are glad to have their stores make better showings than the other stores, and it makes them feel as though they were on the road to promotion.

This example has been given because the majority of chains base their bonus to store managers on the volume of business or the net profits of the store.

Albert I. Stewart, manager of the Sam. Seelig Stores in California, says the average cost of doing business for a grocery store is 13 per cent. A curious system of giving a bonus to managers is in vogue in this organization. Every manager who at the end of the month shows an actual inventory in excess of his book balance gets a bonus of one-half of 1 per cent of his sales for the month. The basis is not volume of business but store-managing efficiency. The manager who constantly earns this bonus has his pay raised.

The bonus is reckoned not on expense but on inventory. Every month the inventory man comes around. Suppose one month he finds stock worth $3,809.05 and the following month $3,824.04, as in the example quoted in *Business* for November, 1921. Then headquarters draws up this recapitulation.

Inventory at beginning of month	$ 3,809.05
Purchases through month	6,444.08
Total charged	$10,253.13
Sales for month	6,497.06
Book balance	$ 3,756.07
Retail inventory	3,809.05
Book balance	3,756.07
Gain	$ 52.98

The reason for this gain is that many articles are invoiced to the store at group prices, that is, two bars of soap for 15 cents, three cans of soup for a quarter, etc. Thus, if the store is

properly managed, the manager should have no difficulty in showing a profit.

Eliminated Expenses.—The majority of chain stores are "cash-and-carry." In the last 20 years this idea has become thoroughly fixed as one of the principles of chain store operation. It has several great advantages:

1. It eliminates bad debts.

2. It enables chain organizations to discount their purchases immediately, and this alone is a saving not generally recognized. For example, 2 per cent payable in a month is 36 per cent in a year.

Savings Effected through Taking Discounts

	Net	Per Cent per Annum
1 per cent 10 days	30 days	18
2 per cent 10 days	30 days	36
3 per cent 10 days	30 days	54
3 per cent cash	30 days	36
5 per cent 10 days	30 days	90
8 per cent 10 days	30 days	144
2 per cent 10 days	60 days	14.4
3 per cent 10 days	60 days	21.6
2 per cent 30 days	60 days	24
5 per cent 30 days	4 months	20
5 per cent 30 days	60 days	60

3. It simplifies accounting, which otherwise would assume great proportions.

4. It saves time verifying accounts and making out charge slips, bills, etc.

Another great expense which has been done away with by chain organizations is delivery. In the case of grocery stores this expense often mounts up to four and five per cent of gross sales, while a department store pays around 1½ per cent for deliveries.

The Piggly Wiggly stores by their self-service idea have cut down the largest item of expense, that is, labor, but it has yet to be proved how far the self-service idea can be extended.

After all, the greatest universal saving effected in chain store operations is the efficient standardization of all processes con-

nected with running the business from the top to the bottom. The greatest saving is the elimination of waste.

Profits.—The ultimate proof of the success of any business is the ability to pay regular dividends to stockholders. Capital is

EARNINGS PER SHARE ON COMMON STOCK

	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922	1923
S. S. Kresge Company	15.61	21.40	26.14	20.26	35.52	38.11
F. W. Woolworth Company	9.96	17.11	13.87	20.04	27.11	31.84
S. H. Kress Company	6.45	14.15	5.01	7.57	23.83	27.11
McCrory Stores	5.25	7.69	10.98	9.99	15.06	4.05 after retirement of preferred stock

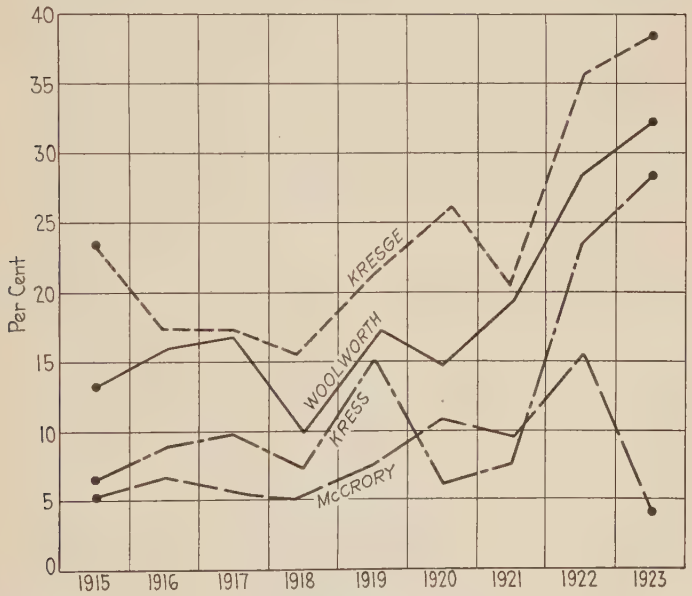


FIG. 17.—Comparison of earnings per share of common stock of the four largest five-and-ten-cent store chains.

invested in the business for the sole purpose of having it return net profits. Net profits on sales, however, are not the same as net profits on the invested capital. They are higher or lower according to the number of times the inventory can be turned over and the percentage of net profits realized.

Name of company	Net sales	Net profit	Net profit per cent of sales	Earned on common	Par of common
Department stores					
Associated Dry Goods Corporation	.....	$3,975,406	.....	$17.85	$100
The Fair, Chicago	.....	1,267,599			
Gimbel Brothers Company, Inc.[1]	$101,544,467	7,378,645	7.26	10.37	no par
Kaufmann Department Stores	.....	2,255,235			
May Department Stores Company[1]	90,997,655	6,680,542	7.34	12.09	$50
R. H. Macy & Company, Inc.	51,232,360	3,337,887	6.51	7.58	no par
National Department Stores, Inc.[1]	72,331,456	4,309,780	5.94	6.75	no par
J. C. Penney Company[1]	62,188,978	4,490,293	7.22		
Stern Brothers	.....	1,062,319	.....	11.58	100
Variety and other chain store groups					
F. & W. Grand	$ 5,409,779	$ 511,928	10.72		
S. S. Kresge Company	81,843,233	9,493,988	11.6	$38.14	$100
S. H. Kress	34,005,464	3,472,901	10.2		
McCrory Stores Corporation	21,367,823	1,671,039	7.82	4.31	no par
F. W. Woolworth	193,447,010	20,698,180	10.70	31.84	100
G. R. Kinney (shoes)	15,321,008	924,474	6.02	8.31	no par
United Drug Company	67,244,671	4,164,822	6.19	8.46	
American Stores Company (grocery)	94,579,850	4,020,336	4.25		
Mail-order firms					
Montgomery Ward & Company	$123,702,043	$7,702,625	6.30	$ 4.39	$ 10
National Cloak & Suit Company	52,399,782	2,160,845	4.12	14.00	100
Sears, Roebuck & Company	198,482,945	11,512,617	5.80		
Miscellaneous					
American Wholesale Corporation	$ 32,600,408	$ 1,866,942	5.72		
International Shoe Company	109,922,738	10,298,641	9.36		
Cluett, Peabody Company	28,264,902	3,129,666	11.07	$12.60	
Standard Textile Products	23,134,983	1,206,070	5.21	11.52	
Pacific Mills	44,810,158	3,690,912	8.23		
Ludlow Manufacturing Associates	17,158,239	2,060,700	12.09	14.72	
V. Vivaudou, Inc	6,741,182	916,214	13.59	2.19	no par
General Motors Company	698,038,947	62,067,525	8.89	2.19	
General Electric	271,309,695	38,001,528	13.78	18.25	
U. S. Steel Corporation	1,571,414,483	108,707,064	6.91	16.43	
E. I. Dupont de Nemours	94,069,319	15,603,249	11.26	15.00	
Coca-Cola Company	24,221,609	17,346,221	18.45	13.94	
American Tobacco Company	138,473,340	5,264,359	21.72		
Postum Cereal Company	22,205,410	2,881,466	12.97	6.31	

The figures in this table are taken from the published financial statements of the various companies included. Net profit figure is arrived at after all deductions for taxes and interest on bonded indebtedness.

[1] Signifies more than one store in company.

FIG. 18.—Comparative table of profits and sales.

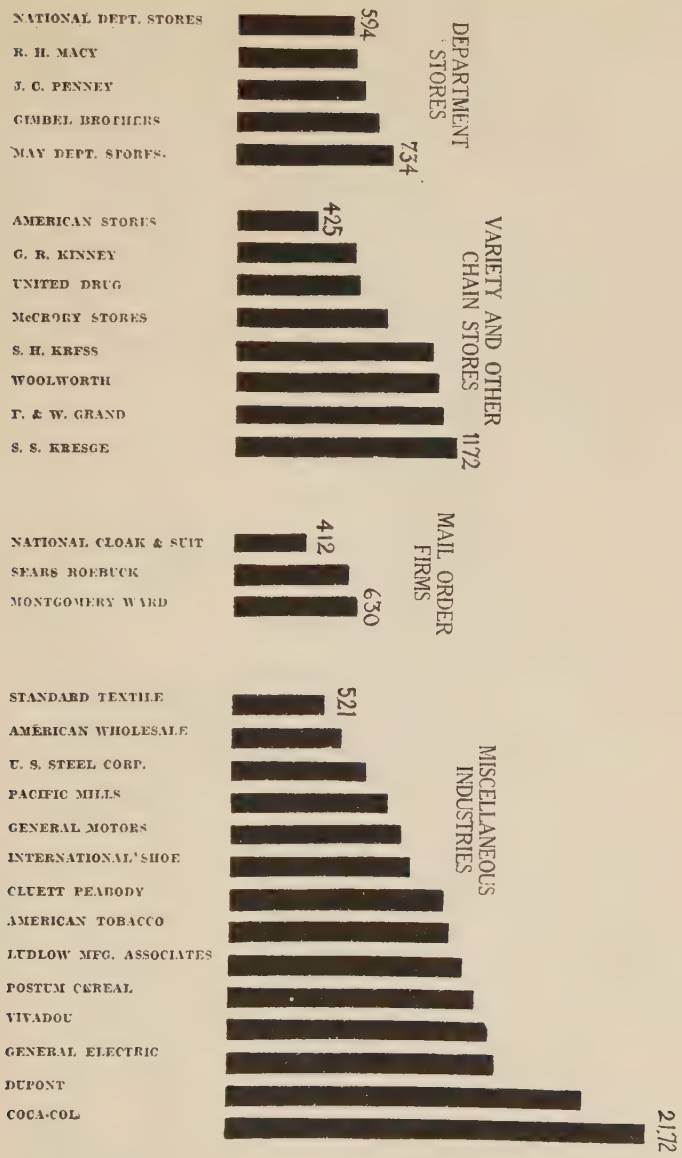


FIG. 19.—Chart showing per cent of net profit earned by different types of retailing enterprises and by firms in miscellaneous industries.

Figure 17 shows a comparison of the earnings per share on the common stock of the four largest five-and-ten-cent organizations. The Woolworth Company was the only one of these chains to maintain the price limit at 10 cents.

Figure 18 tabulates the profits and the sales for four different groups of business enterprise during 1923—department stores, variety and other chain groups, mail-order firms, and manufacturers. Figure 19 illustrates graphically the per cent of net profit earned during that year by chain department stores, other types of chain stores, mail-order firms, and manufacturers. The five-and-ten-cent chains lead all other retailers in the percentage of

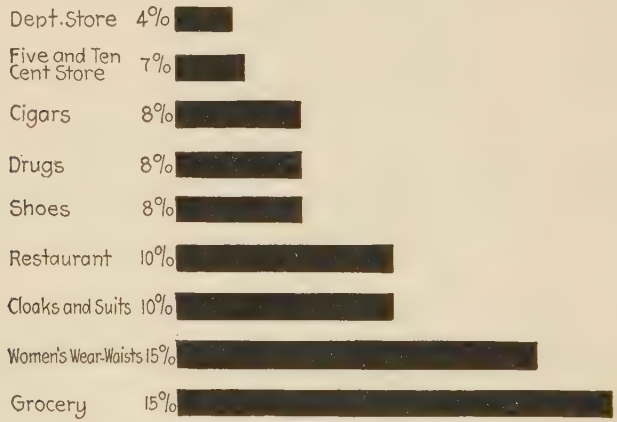


FIG. 20.—Percentage of profit required on gross.

net profits, despite their policy of merchandising on a price basis. Manufacturing concerns, as a group, according to the account in *Women's Wear*, show a higher rate of profit per dollar of sales than do retail enterprises. It is important to note this, because if retailers were to show as high profits as DuPont with 18.45 per cent and Coca Cola with 21.72 per cent, there would be an almost universal outcry. As a matter of fact, the increasing keenness of competition in the retail field will insure against such a possibility.

The ideal of the United Cigar Stores for a long time was to cut gross profits 1 per cent each year and, by selling the consumer more at a lower price, make larger net profits. Ordinarily

a chain store is satisfied with a far smaller profit on gross than the independent, and the secret of its willingness to accept this lies in turnover more than in any other cause. It pays to sell Uneeda Biscuit a shade less than independent grocers when the chain can turn it 52 times in the year and the independent grocery not half so often. The average grocer would like to get 25 per cent gross profit on a sale, and this he feels he must do if he is going to make a profit. The chain grocery in many cases is satisfied with half this. The grocer may get 5 to 8 per cent net, but a chain grocery with a turnover from three to four times as large can be satisfied with 2 per cent net.

Figure 20 shows the percentage of profit on gross which chains in various lines of retailing plan to obtain. These figures, of course, are mere approximations, and it is perfectly possible for an organization to operate successfully with a larger or smaller profit on gross. Generally, the older the company the smaller profit needed to obtain on gross. This is due to the standardization of method which comes only with long practice.

Store Profits.—Profits from each individual store depend on all the factors which have been discussed—on the ability of the manager, on the location of the store, on the pricing of the products, on the turnover, on the efficient supervision by the central office, etc. Notwithstanding all these tendencies toward stabilization, some stores make more money than others, because of the predominance of some particular advantage. Stores that do not make profits should in most cases be abandoned, and actually are. If there has been a mistake in judgment, the easiest way to remedy it is to take immediately whatever loss has been incurred and start another store somewhere else.

Some chains find it desirable to operate several links at a nominal profit rather than sacrifice the advantages to be gained in the way of publicity and advertising. A show store which barely pays for itself as an individual unit may serve as a drawing card for all the others.

Store profits, like everything else, and more than anything else, are scrutinized by the management. If profits fall off in a particular store, there is immediate inquiry. There is no waiting to see what will happen next month. There is an investigation to find out what really happened to cause this sudden

fluctuation. A sudden profit causes a similar investigation to find out whether the cause for profit in that store cannot be applied equally well to other stores. The chain organization is constantly profiting by the mistakes and by the constructive plans of its store managers.

It is to the advantage of nearly every individual in the chain to increase profits. It is possible, therefore, to teach the personnel methods of increasing profits. One method which has been found successful is to increase the size of the average sale.

Law of the Average Sale.—An increase in volume, in itself, does not necessarily mean an increase in profits, but an increase in the average sale per customer does mean an increase in profits. The following figures and comments are adapted from an article by K. G. MacDonald, general manager of the Federal System of Bakeries of the South:

The law of the average sale is briefly as follows:

The cost of the product sold, the average sale per customer, and the net profit are interdependent—fluctuations in one are reflected in the other two—and by increasing the average sale the profit is also increased.

The following figures were taken from six stores in four states, chosen at random. In these stores, the cost of the products fluctuated with the change in the prices of the raw materials from which they were made. In the average store this factor would show far less fluctuation, since in normal times the cost on the average varies but little.

Following are the figures on store A:

"A"				Increase or decrease from previous month		
	Raw material used %	Ave. sale	Profit %	Raw material	Ave. sale	Profit
June (sales, $4,043.26)...	42.5	24.0	11.1			
July (sales, $3,783.57)...	45.1	24.9	12.5	+2.6	+0.9	+1.4
Aug. (sales, $3,667.52)...	45.0	23.8	7.9	−0.1	−1.1	−4.6
Sept. (sales, $3,614.60)..	40.8	24.9	12.0	−4.2	+1.1	+4.1

In July, this store earned more profit than in June, although the July sales were nearly $300 less than the June figures. Although the material cost increased in July, the profit also

increased. As an explanation of this, the average sale was increased by nearly 1 cent per customer. Comparing July with August, although material cost was lower, the profit was considerably less, for the average sale fell off more than 1 cent per customer in August. That is, material cost down and average sale up makes increased profits.

"B"				Increase or decrease from previous month		
	Raw material used %	Ave. sale	Profit %	Raw material	Ave. sale	Profit
June (sales, $3,847.19)...	44.5	20.9	2.4			
July (sales, $4,015.81)...	51.0	21.7	5.2	+6.5	+0.8	+2.8
Aug. (sales, $4,248.52)...	43.3	20.9	16.3	−7.7	−0.8	+11.1
Sept. (sales, $4,699.54)..	42.8	21.7	18.3	−0.5	+0.8	+2.0

In store B there is an increase in volume and an increase in average sale in July as compared with June which makes increased profits even though material cost was higher in July. Comparing August with September, although material cost was practically the same, the profit was increased because the average sale was increased by almost 1 cent per customer.

"C"				Increase or decrease from previous month		
	Raw material used %	Ave. sale	Profit %	Raw material	Ave. sale	Profit
June (sales, $5,562.56)...	37.8	17.8	16.9			
July (sales, $6,044.49)...	37.4	18.5	24.5	−0.4	+0.7	+7.6
Aug. (sales, $6,597.96)...	37.6	19.1	26.7	+0.2	+0.6	+2.2
Sept. (sales, $5,962.16)..	36.9	18.9	23.3	−0.7	−0.2	−3.4

The figures for store C show how fluctuations in the amount of the average sale affect a store doing a large volume of business. In four months, material cost varied less than 1 per cent but the percentage of profit went up as the average sale went up, and the profit came down as the average sale dropped. The volume being large, a slight falling off in the average sale resulted in a serious decrease in the percentage of profit.

"D"	Raw material used %	Ave. sale	Profit %	Increase or decrease from previous month: Raw material	Ave. sale	Profit
June (sales, $4,491.65)...	47.3	21.3	9.3			
July (sales, $4,420.66)...	37.8	21.9	18.7	−9.5	+0.6	+9.4
Aug. (sales, $4,221.57)...	38.5	21.6	15.3	+0.7	−0.3	−3.4
Sept. (sales, $4,198.49)..	38.9	23.2	16.0	+0.4	+1.6	+0.7

June and July represented a period of reorganization at store D, resulting in an improved system of operation and consequent conservation of materials. Comparing July with August, there is a falling off in profit due to lower average sale. In September, profit for the month increased in spite of advanced material cost because average sale was more than 1½ cents more per customer than in August.

"E"	Raw material used %	Ave. sale	Profit %	Increase or decrease from previous month: Raw material	Ave. sale	Profit
June (sales, $1,827.55)...	48.3	16.2	−6.9			
July (sales, $1,762.00)...	41.4	16.9	1.9	−6.9	+0.7	+8.8
Aug. (sales, $1,872.28)...	46.7	15.2	−0.5	+5.3	−1.7	−2.4
Sept. (sales, $1,730.60)..	46.4	15.0	−3.8	−0.3	−0.2	−3.3

In three of the four months store E lost money. The low average sale is significant.

"F"	Raw material used %	Ave. sale	Profit %	Increase or decrease from previous month: Raw material	Ave. sale	Profit
June (sales, $4,551.21)...	38.8	16.3	2.5			
July (sales, $4,832.72)...	39.5	18.5	6.3	+0.7	+2.2	+3.8
Aug. (sales, $5,116.39)...	40.3	19.3	7.7	+0.8	+0.8	+1.4
Sept. (sales, $4,541.60)..	42.2	17.6	1.6	+1.9	−1.7	−6.1

Store F belongs to the class of store where a certain minimum volume of business must absolutely be done each month to permit the earning of any profit. This is chiefly on account of the heavy fixed overhead of rent and amortization charges which stores of this class must carry. Below a certain point in sales, no profit is possible, no matter how well controllable expenses are held down and no matter how high the average sale may be. The law still holds, however.

In the case of this store, $4,500 per month is about the minimum on which any profit can reasonably be expected. Comparing June with July, a small increase in the material cost was far more than offset by a marked increase in the average sale which resulted in an increase in profit. In August, although material cost was slightly higher, as the average sale increased nearly 1 cent per customer, the profit also showed a fair increase. In September, the material cost advanced again, while average sales fell off nearly 2 cents per customer, with a consequent sharp falling off in profits.

This condition has been examined at length because of the lucid explanation of the subject and the evident bearing of the point in question, namely, the effect of increased average sale on profits. In another connection it was pointed out how the Liggett one-cent sales, by increasing average sales, allow the store to make this enormous reduction in selling price and still make a nominal profit.

Miscellaneous Profits.—A member store in a grocery chain frequently turns in more profits than were to be expected by an examination of goods shipped to that store. Many items sell for 9 cents, three for a quarter, or so much a case of one hundred. Now these are usually charged out to the store at the group price, and, consequently, there is a steady but uncertain source of profit from these odd cents.

Then many member stores are allowed to buy milk, green vegetables, cottage cheese, and other articles by themselves. This forms another source of profit not generally counted on.

Chains go on the theory that "a penny saved is a penny earned." Thus, a careful check is often kept on how much paper and string each store uses. In many chains a penalty is put on waste. That is, a manager is allowed a variation of one-half of 1

per cent on bulk goods. He is allowed ½ pound out of one hundred pounds of sugar and if the difference runs over this he is charged for it.

Conclusions.—The chain organization expenses should be no more proportionately than those of independent stores in the same locality or neighborhood. As a matter of fact, they should be materially less, due to the possible economies and savings which have been mentioned and discussed in this chapter. That is, the elimination of credit accounts, the abolition of deliveries, and the speeding up of turnover will decrease expenses and consequently increase net profits.

In comparison with other retailing ventures, the chain organizations are remarkable for consistent steady profits. By carefully pursuing a policy of increasing sales, increasing turnover, and standardizing of method and routine, they offer an almost impregnable front to periods of depression.

CHAPTER XI

ADVERTISING

Outline

Tendency towards more extensive advertising:
1. Increased competition between chains.
2. Geographical growth of chains.
3. Improvement in advertising practice.

The advertising department:
1. Personnel:
   (*a*) Advertising manager.
   (*b*) Window trimmers.
   (*c*) Artists, etc.
2. Routine:
   (*a*) Prepare copy at headquarters.
   (*b*) Alternative practice of allowing local managers certain percentage for advertising.

Benefits of advertising to chain:
1. Increased sales and turnover.
2. Enlarged clientele.
3. Increased confidence in chain and its products.

Media of publicity:
1. Passive:
   (*a*) Location.
   (*b*) Window trims.
   (*c*) Window pasters.
   (*d*) Store front.
   (*e*) Outdoor advertising.
2. Active:
   (*a*) Advertising in local newspaper.
   (*b*) Distribution of "dodgers," pamphlets, etc.

The advertising appeal:
1. Institutional:
   (*a*) Selling the organization:
      (1) Its policy.
      (2) Its methods.
      (3) Its personnel.
      (4) Its service.
      (5) Etc.

(*b*) Character of copy:
(1) To create interest.
(2) Attractive and artistic.
2. Price advertising:
(*a*) Featuring loss leaders:
(1) Most common form of chain advertising.

The advertising agency and the chain:
1. The difficulty of the agency in handling local advertising.
2. Necessity for contact man.

CHAPTER XI

ADVERTISING

Chain organizations have always prided themselves upon being in the forefront of retail progress as far as selling methods are concerned. Yet in advertising they have lagged behind, not from ignorance, but from choice. The inception of the chain store movement occurred prior to the great development in advertising. Chain merchandising relied on location rather than on advertising, all unconsciously choosing the most primitive and most effective form of advertising, namely, that of showing the product directly to the consumer.

It is only recently that chain stores have begun to realize that, after all, the appeal of their products to the public might not be entirely based on price. A certain class of people will always be drawn by the price appeal, but there are other classes to whom the price appeal means little. The chain advertising policy is showing signs of breaking away from the traditional price-list advertising. What the future has in store is by no means clear as yet, but the following tendencies in advertising are at work:

1. Increased competition between chain and chain, both selling at approximately the same price. For one chain to attract the balance of the trade it is necessary to find a new appeal. Hence, the rise of institutional advertising by some chains, the cooperation of manufacturers and chains in merchandising campaigns which include advertising, etc.

2. Merchandising and sales policies fully developed. The attention of the chains is being turned on publicity.

3. The rapid growth of the chain store movement in the past ten years. This has made it possible for many chains to advertise which before had to confine themselves to handbills and "dodgers." After all, a chain must have a certain minimum distribution to make advertising effective.

4. The growth of the science of advertising, and its natural extension to the chain store field as a logical opening for applied modern advertising.

The real reason why the chains have never advertised to any extent is that they never had to advertise. The customers came anyhow. It was like the early days of the automobile industry, when cars could not be made fast enough to supply the demand.

The Advertising Department.—The advertising of the chain organization is rarely done by agencies. The chain is closely organized and is composed of men who thoroughly understand their business. In some chains the advertising department is separate from the other departments, while in others it is attached to the merchandising department. This depends a great deal on the size of the chain and on the policy adopted in regard to advertising. In some chains advertising is under the direct control of the general sales manager, who takes care of sales in all the branch stores. In smaller chains the sales manager frequently handles the advertising himself.

The window dressers may or may not be attached to the advertising department. They may be part of the sales department or of the merchandising department. But in any event the closest cooperation must exist between the advertising and the other departments.

The personnel of the advertising department may vary from the department in which one man does everything to the large chains where there is a manager, an assistant who looks after the copy, a research department, an artist, several photographers, copywriters, and perhaps the window trim experts. Some chains find it profitable to operate their own printing plant to get out placards, notices, handbills, price lists, circulars, and all the other printed matter necessary in the routine work of a large chain.

Where newspaper advertising is done, the ordinary practice is to prepare copy at headquarters and to send electrotypes to local managers for insertion in the local papers. Full instructions are given as to the position of the advertisement, the days it is to run, etc. Naturally, this newspaper advertising is closely coordinated with the weekly sales specials or whatever products the company wishes to feature at the time.

The branch manager is responsible for inserting the copy in the local papers. In some instances, branch managers are allowed to write their own copy and arrange for space. In other chains the branch managers are allowed a certain percentage for advertising. In the Penney chain this is 2 per cent. Many chains employ a specialist whose duty it is to buy space in papers. They do not care to leave this to the branch manager whose experience in this line is likely to be limited.

Counter cards, window display cards, signs, circulars, handbills, price lists, pamphlets, etc. are prepared by the advertising department as a rule, although they may be decided upon with the sales or the merchandising departments. Usually they are sent to all stores simultaneously. The managers of the Federal Bakeries have an opportunity to order what they wish of sales promotion matter prepared by the merchandising department.

When advertising is decided on at the central office, it is usually done by conference. Various plans are submitted and the best one chosen. One of the determining factors in this, as in so many other chain matters, is the records of what happened in previous years under certain conditions. The records tell not only the kind and the character of the advertising, but also the products advertised and the actual results obtained.

It is an excellent plan to call into this conference members of the sales and merchandising departments. Their suggestions can frequently be used to advantage and objections are much easier to rectify when they are made at once than after everything has been settled upon.

It is important to have new ideas not only because the public expects them, but because of the stimulating effect on the whole organization. Not only the public but the personnel also feels the benefit of a distinctive sales policy.

Does Advertising Pay the Chain Store?—"Of the firms which fail each year, 84 per cent are among the non-advertisers," said A. C. Pearson, president of the Associated Business Papers. That chain stores have not done what is technically known as advertising does not mean that they have not kept themselves before the public. Quite the contrary. Each member store of a chain organization is an advertisement in itself. The old customer, wherever he is, seeks the familiar store front.

The United Cigar Stores say they have never been able to tell whether advertising paid or not. On the books it has been the custom to set it down as a total loss, because it cannot be traced. The Childs Company states that, as a result of advertising conducted by them, the average check was increased from 25 to 45 cents. Each chain will have its own problem to face, but the issue in each case will be the same.

Good advertising consists in presenting your message to as many prospective customers as possible at the most reasonable cost, and in a way that will attract their attention and bring them to your store.

Chain store advertising policies are still too undeveloped to give any definite statistics as to how much should be spent for advertising purposes. The best that can be done is to compare the figures for the chain with the common figures for the field. The following statistics of advertising expenses in percentage of gross sales have been compiled by the Chamber of Commerce of the United States:

	Common Figure, Per cent
Grocery store sales:	
Less than $ 30,000	0.2
$ 30,000 to 49,000	0.2
50,000 to 99,000	0.3
100,000 to 149,000	0.3
150,000 and over	0.3
Shoe store sales:	
Less than $ 30,000	1.6
$ 30,000 to 49,000	2.1
50,000 to 99,000	2.2
100,000 to 249,000	2.8
250,000 and over	3.8
Department store sales:	
Less than $ 250,000	1.7
$ 250,000 to 499,000	2.2
500,000 to 992,000	2.9
1,000,000 to 3,999,000	2.9
4,000,000 to 9,999,000	2.9
10,000,000 and over	3.2
Jewelry store sales:	
Less than $ 20,000	2.6
$ 20,000 to 49,000	2.9
50,000 and over	4.3
Drug stores	0.7
Specialty stores	3.4

Hardware store sales:

	Average
Less than $ 25,000	0.66
$ 25,000 to 40,000	0.65
40,000 to 60,000	0.79
60,000 to 100,000	0.71
100,000 and over	0.70
Clothing stores	1.98

Costly mistakes have been made in advertising in the past. At one time advertising was considered as a panacea for all ills, but the chain store has been reluctant to put faith in it until after it has proved itself. Consequently, the movement of the chain stores towards advertising is very significant. Even the conservative non-advertising Singer Sewing Machine Company has announced an advertising program, with emphasis placed on the individual store. The Piggly Wiggly Stores have always shown pronounced ingenuity in their advertising campaigns.

Chain store advertising is yet in its infancy. It is too early to make any definite statement about the future. What little advertising has been done in newspapers and, in a few cases, in national media has been encouraging in its results. Properly handled, advertising will help the chain in the following ways:

1. Increase turnover by increasing demand while stocks remain stationary.
2. Enlarge clientele.
3. Increase confidence in the chain and its products—an inevitable result of the right kind of publicity. Goodwill is an invaluable asset for the chain organization as well as for any other business.

Advertising a Service Chain.—The Terminal Barber Shops of New York City have done a great deal of pioneer work along the line of merchandising services through a chain system. In applying advertising as a means of building up the business, certain fundamental points are particularly evident, according to John Allen Murphy, writing in *Printers' Ink Monthly:*

First. If a business is not naturally advertisable, it can be made so by adding advertising features. For example, the advertising campaign of the chain is built on the following twelve fundamentals:

1. You enter a barber shop that is as immaculately clean as a clinic room in a hospital.

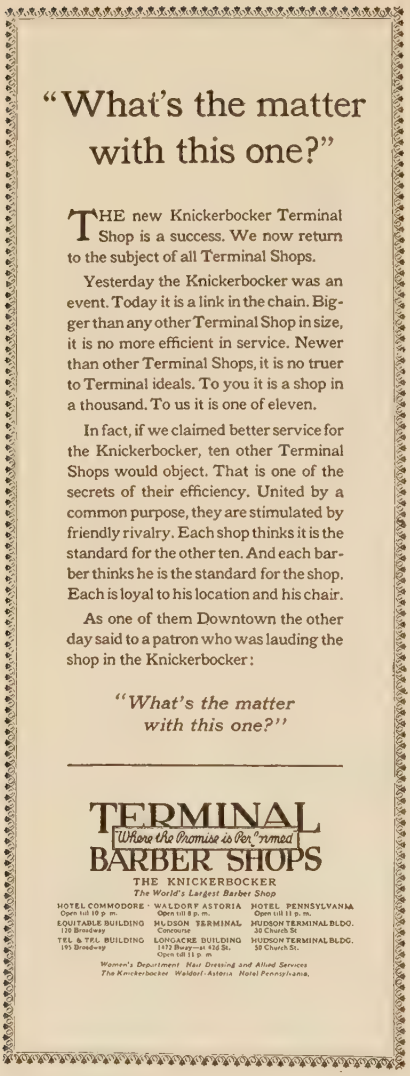

"What's the matter with this one?"
THE new Knickerbocker Terminal Shop is a success. We now return to the subject of all Terminal Shops.
Yesterday the Knickerbocker was an event. Today it is a link in the chain. Bigger than any other Terminal Shop in size, it is no more efficient in service. Newer than other Terminal Shops, it is no truer to Terminal ideals. To you it is a shop in a thousand. To us it is one of eleven.
In fact, if we claimed better service for the Knickerbocker, ten other Terminal Shops would object. That is one of the secrets of their efficiency. United by a common purpose, they are stimulated by friendly rivalry. Each shop thinks it is the standard for the other ten. And each barber thinks he is the standard for the shop. Each is loyal to his location and his chair.
As one of them Downtown the other day said to a patron who was lauding the shop in the Knickerbocker:
"What's the matter with this one?"
TERMINAL
Where the Promise is Performed
BARBER SHOPS
THE KNICKERBOCKER
The World's Largest Barber Shop
HOTEL COMMODORE · Open till 10 p. m.
WALDORF ASTORIA · Open till 8 p. m.
HOTEL PENNSYLVANIA · Open till 11 p. m.
EQUITABLE BUILDING · 120 Broadway
HUDSON TERMINAL · Concourse
HUDSON TERMINAL BLDG. · 30 Church St
TEL. & TEL. BUILDING · 195 Broadway
LONGACRE BUILDING · 1472 Bway—at 42d St. · Open till 11 p. m
HUDSON TERMINAL BLDG. · 50 Church St.
Women's Department Hair Dressing and Allied Services
The Knickerbocker Waldorf-Astoria Hotel Pennsylvania.

FIG. 21.—Good example of how to advertise a chain without causing jealousy among individual units. (*Printers' Ink Monthly.*)

2. A chair that is actually comfortable. A clean sheet is fastened about your neck with a sterilized band and completely covers you.

3. A barber who is not an ordinary barber at all, but a thoroughly trained, highly skilled specialist.

4. This barber carefully washes his hands with germicidal soap.

5. See him take an envelope from a cabinet, tear it open and take out a fresh shaving brush. This brush has been sterilized in formaldehyde and made surgically clean since it was used the day before.

6. Then see him pour fresh soap powder directly on to this brush from the original tube. No mugs or sticks or cakes of soap are used.

7. A razor sterilized in boiling water. So keen is his razor—and so light and sure his touch that you will not realize you are being shaved.

8. See him take a new, clean hot towel and steam your face.

9. He will give you a little massage with cold cream made especially for the company of pure fats, a veritable skin food.

10. The lotions he will use on your face, witch hazel, lilac, or whatever you prefer, will be full strength, just as bottled by the maker. Nothing in this shop is diluted for the sake of saving money. No imitations used.

11. See him take another sealed envelope from the cabinet, tear it open and take out a fresh brush and comb. Like the shaving brush, this hair brush has been sterilized and made surgically clean since its last use.

12. Despite this unique and costly service the charges are no more than elsewhere.

Second. Advertising enables a business either to give more for the same money or else to sell for less.

Third. Advertising can remove the peaks and valleys of patronage fluctuation even from a strictly service business.

Fourth. Even such a blasé individual as the average journeyman barber can be trained to back up advertising promises.

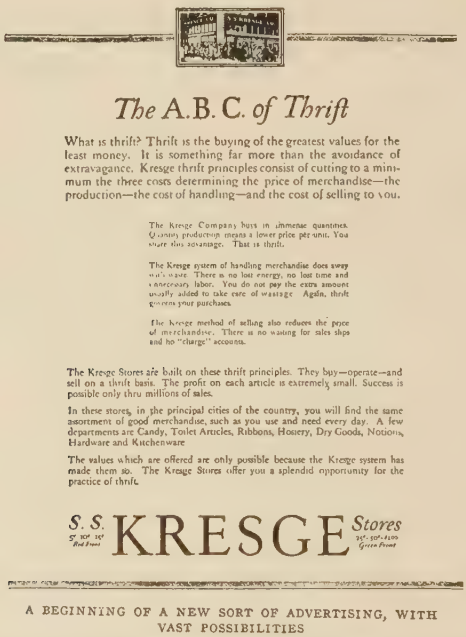
Fifth. Advertising attracts the best workers in an industry by enabling them to earn more.

Most of the copy appears in newspapers, and is composed largely of descriptions of the service features of the shops. When a new store is opened, this naturally receives the bulk of the emphasis, but ordinarily advertising is formulated so that it benefits all links in the chain equally (see Fig. 21). The copy also frequently emphasizes the location of the shops, especially when they are located in famous hotels, such as the Waldorf-Astoria and the Knickerbocker.

The Media of Advertising.—This illustration leads directly to the question of where the chain should advertise in order to obtain direct benefits. Two main alternatives are, of course, open. The first is national advertising and the second is the local papers. As the chain advertises to the consumer, the choice is limited. As far as national advertising is concerned, the field is immediately narrowed down to the few chains with national distribution, that is, with branches extending over enough of the territory of the United States to make it profitable for them to use such a medium of publicity as a national magazine. The Douglas Shoe Company is a consistent advertiser in national periodicals. The United Drug Company has also experimented in this field. But, when the benefits are analyzed, the results, in proportion, are small, even for a company with branches all over the country. Many of the readers are not in localities where it is possible to patronize the chain. Therefore, a large percentage of this advertising is bound to be lost. In the second place, a magazine will not cover the local field in the way the local paper can.

National advertising, under certain circumstances, proves an excellent medium for presenting the merchandising principles of the chain to the public. Figure 22 illustrates one of a series of advertisements used by the S. S. Kresge Company:

1. To bring the Kresge system to the notice of the public as one of the important answers to the problem of the high cost of living.


The A.B.C. of Thrift
What is thrift? Thrift is the buying of the greatest values for the least money. It is something far more than the avoidance of extravagance. Kresge thrift principles consist of cutting to a minimum the three costs determining the price of merchandise—the production—the cost of handling—and the cost of selling to you.
The Kresge Company buys in immense quantities. Quantity production means a lower price per unit. You share this advantage. That is thrift.
The Kresge system of handling merchandise does away with waste. There is no lost energy, no lost time and unnecessary labor. You do not pay the extra amount usually added to take care of wastage. Again, thrift governs your purchases.
The Kresge method of selling also reduces the price of merchandise. There is no waiting for sales slips and no "charge" accounts.
The Kresge Stores are built on these thrift principles. They buy—operate—and sell on a thrift basis. The profit on each article is extremely small. Success is possible only thru millions of sales.
In these stores, in the principal cities of the country, you will find the same assortment of good merchandise, such as you use and need every day. A few departments are Candy, Toilet Articles, Ribbons, Hosiery, Dry Goods, Notions, Hardware and Kitchenware
The values which are offered are only possible because the Kresge system has made them so. The Kresge Stores offer you a splendid opportunity for the practice of thrift.
S. S. KRESGE Stores

A BEGINNING OF A NEW SORT OF ADVERTISING, WITH VAST POSSIBILITIES

Fig. 22.—Sample of national advertising used by the S. S. Kresge Company.

2. To present the ideas behind the chain method of operation, such as the advantage of bulk buying in enormous quantities, the simplicity of the display and sale operation, the systematic grouping of articles, and their locations, in the store.

3. The story of the business.

The F. W. Woolworth Company has gone even farther, and has advertised articles which are sold exclusively by the Woolworth stores. Figure 23 shows a typical advertisement of Woolco snaps as run in one of the larger women's magazines.

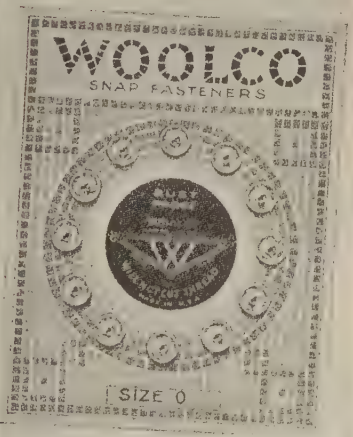
F. W. WOOLWORTH CO.
5 and 10¢ STORE

WOOLCO
Snaps
5¢
The Card of 12

NONE BETTER AT ANY PRICE

STYLE-PROTECTION and Woolco Snaps are synonymous. Each Woolco is a flat-lying, invisible fastener that faithfully guards neatly closed seams. Its five cent economy price is made possible by the tremendous buying resources of the great Woolworth organization and its vast network of retail selling units spanning the continent.

Seven sizes—for all weight fabrics
In black and bright nickel



Sold Exclusively at
F. W. WOOLWORTH CO.
Stores

FIG. 23.—Column advertisement in a woman's magazine of a Woolworth product.

The local newspaper offers the logical medium of publicity for most chain organizations. Even here, the results are likely to benefit no particular link in the chain, but rather the whole local organization. One chain executive says:

> The question of advertising is very important. Chain stores render less service to their customers than old-time stores do—how are they going to overcome that fact? We do it by making our prices lower and then by telling everybody about it. We operate many stores, some one of which is sure to be not more than a few blocks from your house, no matter where you may live. But because a chain store gets part of everybody's business probably at least once a year, and because a customer of No. 5 feels perfectly free to stop in at No. 45 if she is out that way and has time to buy, we have no actual personal acquaintanceship with our customers, such as a small retailer has. We have to shoot our advertising in the air and make it cover the whole town.
>
> We use the local newspapers. Some chains use handbills or dodgers. Recently some chains have been issuing a weekly paper, containing advertisements of the week's "specials" and containing jokes, cartoons, and reading matter, so that the children will take the paper home. This is a new development in the business and merits consideration.

The People's Drug Stores, operating a chain of 12 stores in Washington, D. C., used 14 pages, a complete advertising section, in one of the daily papers as a means of bringing home to the public that it was the chain's sixteenth anniversary. The president of the company, M. G. Gibbs, stated that for ten days after the advertising appeared the company did the largest business in its history. This is an instance of an extraordinary use of newspaper space, but, as a general rule, chains use newspaper space in varying quantity. Some advertise every week; some only on special occasions. It is possible the day may come when the chain stores will be as lavish users of newspaper space as are the department stores today. Drug stores frequently take page advertisements for special sales. Grocery stores, with a few exceptions, do price advertising. As will be noted later, some institutional advertising is done.

Preliminary Advertising.—When any retailer starts a new store, he wants as many people to know about it as possible. He may offer special inducements to get people to come to the store. He may distribute handbills from house to house. He

may do nothing at all beyond choosing a good location and relying on the name over the door and the price display in the window. Without doubt the latter method is the cheapest, but it will not reach all the people who may be considered as potential customers. It is a logical policy to put an advance notice of the opening in the local paper.

When the Metropolitan Stores, Inc. opened in Philadelphia, on the first business day it made 69,000 sales to 40,000 customers. It is one of a chain of five- to fifty-cent stores, stocking about 10,000 items. To attract customers, the following advertisement was inserted in the local papers:

> The merchandise is all new. It has been personally selected by expert buyers. Many of the articles have never before been obtainable at these prices or offered on the counters of chain stores.
>
> The merchandise must be seen to be appreciated. Come to our opening. You will be under no obligation to purchase. We want you to see the remarkable stocks as they stand complete—to see what is possible for a merchandise organization such as ours, buying in large quantities, to offer within a selling range of from 5 to 50 cents.
>
> We guarantee satisfaction to all purchasers.

Advertising is a short cut. In a comparatively brief time it does what otherwise might take, and has taken, years to accomplish. The fact that the Great Atlantic & Pacific Tea Company did not advertise does not mean that another store with a location equally good, a stock equally low-priced, and a manager with equally good personality could do the same thing. A store which retails to the public must have goodwill. A large chain has a fund of goodwill already prepared to draw upon. A chain which enters a locality for the first time must create its goodwill. The success of the Metropolitan Stores advertising was directly mirrored in the number of people who came to the store the first day.

The method pursued by the United Retail Candy Stores when they started in New York deserves retelling. This company, at that time subsidiary of the United Retail Stores Corporation, and amply backed with capital, planned to start several stores in New York at once and, after these were running, go on to another large city. The story is told by George A. Nichols in *Confectionery Merchandising* for August, 1920.

In New York the company secured leases for its store buildings and then began alterations upon them all at the same time. Yellow fences were built around the front of the stores. Upon these for some time there was no wording whatever. Then one morning on every fence there appeared the slogan "Happiness in Every Box." Thereupon ensued a guessing contest. Everybody wondered what would be in the box. The guesses ran all the way from face powder to cigarettes.

The fact of the matter was that the candy chain saw in those fences a wonderful opportunity for some real outdoor advertising. They might have followed the stereotyped plan and have put on the boards an announcement to the effect that the United Cigar Stores were now going into the candy business on a large scale and that in a short time a store would be opened in that location. But this was an unusual undertaking and the ordinary methods of advertising would not answer. Something was needed to keep the interest up until the time for the store to open.

The slogan was presented in various guises for two or three weeks and then the billboards one morning contained a big announcement telling what it was all about. A candy store was to be opened there on a certain date. "Happiness in Every Box" meant happiness for everybody in the family. The billboard, therefore, contained pictures of happy smiling faces of people from babies up to old age. It was explained that the store would be part of a nation-wide system of fine candy stores and candy factories planned to bring candy quality, candy purity, and candy goodness direct to the consumer without extravagance or high prices. This was followed with advertisements in the newspapers.

To conclude, when a chain store decides to enter a new locality, it has the following possibilities of publicity from which to choose:

1. Location.
2. Window trims.
3. Window pasters.
4. Outdoor advertising, cards, etc.
5. Moving pictures.
6. Advertising in local newspapers.
7. Distribution of handbills, pamphlets, etc.

The first methods are dependent for their efficacy upon customers passing the store. Thus, the value of passive forms of advertising is almost wholly dependent, apart from the intrinsic merit of the display, on the number of people passing the spot. Outdoor signs, of course, do not have to be placed directly on the site of the chain store, and there is no limitation on number, beyond expense and local ordinances governing their erection. The non-advertising chains usually have excellent locations and feel that they can do without this extra expense.

The active forms of advertising, that is, local newspapers and house-to-house distribution of sales and advertising literature, lead directly to the following section dealing with the appeal and purpose of advertising. The chain itself must decide by actual experience which forms are the best to use. Probably it will be best to combine several. The window trim may be regarded as essential in any case. The Piggly Wiggly arrangement, whereby customers look directly into the stores, is, in effect, a novel method of window trimming. Newspaper advertising should pay for itself, especially where the store is a new one and people are not in the habit of going there.

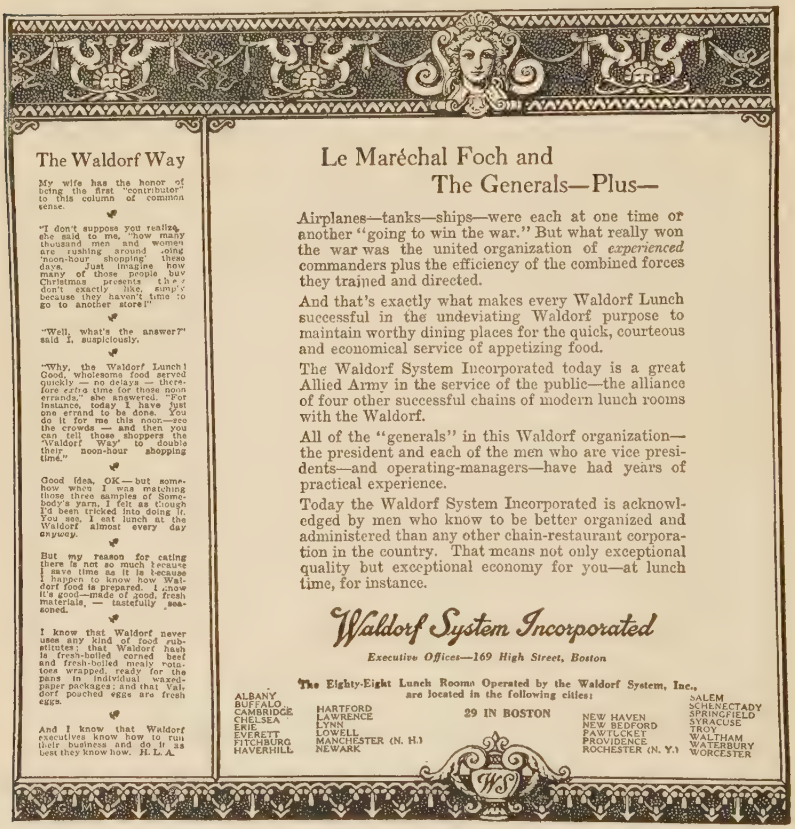
The Advertising Appeal.—Chain store advertising falls naturally into two classes: institutional advertising and merchandise advertising.

1. *Institutional advertising* tells about the chain organization, its methods, etc.

Figure 24 shows one of a series of advertisements of the Waldorf System, Inc., operating a chain of self-service lunch rooms, which was run in the newspapers. The same advertisement appeared in a different Boston paper each day during the week. Two weeks after the insertion of the advertisements in the Boston papers, the same advertisements were started in 15 outlying cities. The idea behind this plan is that many people outside Boston read the Boston papers, and that these people would see the advertising when it appears in these papers. Two weeks later they would see the advertisement in their own hometown paper and, by force of repetition, the advertising appeal would be so much the stronger.

This is strictly institutional advertising. It does not aim to sell any goods or to increase the sales of any one store. It is

designed to present to the public the idea of the system. It will serve eventually as a background on which merchandising advertising to increase the sales of some of its products can be done.



The Waldorf Way

My wife has the honor of being the first "contributor" to this column of common sense.

"I don't suppose you realize," she said to me, "how many thousand men and women are rushing around doing 'noon-hour shopping' these days. Just imagine how many of those people buy Christmas presents they don't exactly like, simply because they haven't time to go to another store!"

"Well, what's the answer?" said I, suspiciously.

"Why, the Waldorf Lunch! Good, wholesome food served quickly — no delays — therefore extra time for those noon errands," she answered. "For instance, today I have just one errand to be done. You do it for me this noon—see the crowds — and then you can tell those shoppers the 'Waldorf Way' to double their noon-hour shopping time."

Good idea, OK — but somehow when I was matching those three samples of Somebody's yarn, I felt as though I'd been tricked into doing it. You see, I eat lunch at the Waldorf almost every day anyway.

But my reason for eating there is not so much because I save time as it is because I happen to know how Waldorf food is prepared. I know it's good—made of good, fresh materials, — tastefully seasoned.

I know that Waldorf never uses any kind of food substitutes; that Waldorf hash is fresh-boiled corned beef and fresh-boiled mealy potatoes wrapped, ready for the pans in individual waxed-paper packages; and that Waldorf pouched eggs are fresh eggs.

And I know that Waldorf executives know how to run their business and do it as best they know how. H. L. A.

Le Maréchal Foch and The Generals—Plus—

Airplanes—tanks—ships—were each at one time or another "going to win the war." But what really won the war was the united organization of *experienced* commanders plus the efficiency of the combined forces they trained and directed.

And that's exactly what makes every Waldorf Lunch successful in the undeviating Waldorf purpose to maintain worthy dining places for the quick, courteous and economical service of appetizing food.

The Waldorf System Incorporated today is a great Allied Army in the service of the public—the alliance of four other successful chains of modern lunch rooms with the Waldorf.

All of the "generals" in this Waldorf organization—the president and each of the men who are vice presidents—and operating-managers—have had years of practical experience.

Today the Waldorf System Incorporated is acknowledged by men who know to be better organized and administered than any other chain-restaurant corporation in the country. That means not only exceptional quality but exceptional economy for you—at lunch time, for instance.

Waldorf System Incorporated

Executive Offices—169 High Street, Boston

The Eighty-Eight Lunch Rooms Operated by the Waldorf System, Inc., are located in the following cities:

ALBANY, BUFFALO, CAMBRIDGE, CHELSEA, ERIE, EVERETT, FITCHBURG, HAVERHILL, HARTFORD, LAWRENCE, LYNN, LOWELL, MANCHESTER (N. H.), NEWARK, 29 IN BOSTON, NEW HAVEN, NEW BEDFORD, PAWTUCKET, PROVIDENCE, ROCHESTER (N. Y.), SALEM, SCHENECTADY, SPRINGFIELD, SYRACUSE, TROY, WALTHAM, WATERBURY, WORCESTER

FIG. 24.—A good example of institutional chain advertising.

There is nothing cheap about the make-up of this advertisement, as is the case with so much newspaper advertising. This goes as far towards quality advertising as is possible in a newspaper. The eye is instantly attracted by the decorative border and the novel introduction of a column of reading matter by the side of the regular advertisement.

The Piggly Wiggly Company has set out to sell the public the chain store idea and, more specifically, the Piggly Wiggly Company's own methods of self-service operation. Too many people believe the sole advantage of the chain is its lower price.

The following is an example of Piggly Wiggly advertising:

Piggly Wiggly is a system of merchandising that provides every housekeeper with a well-ordered pantry that she can go to any time between 7 a.m. and 6 p.m., Saturdays until 10 p.m., and there select with her own hands those articles of food that she may of her own mind want to select. More than one thousand different items are to be found in every Piggly Wiggly store.

Money. You save from 10 to 20 per cent on every article purchased at Piggly Wiggly. A regular patron will save from $8 to $30 a month without sacrificing either quantity or quality.

Time. You save time, energy, and patience, as you wait on yourself and don't have to ask the price of any article, as a swinging price tag indicates the price. You don't have to ask about any article, as only nationally known products are to be found on Piggly Wiggly shelves. You don't have to listen to Mrs. Hard-To-Please or Mrs. Haggler, as they have no one to argue with.

Health. The most precious thing in the world. You can see with your own eyes that the goods are clean, that the surroundings are clean. Some of the goods are in air-tight cartons, others are weighed and sealed in packages of different weights by automatic machines without a human hand touching them.

The above is a good example of what a live chain can do in the way of advertising. It aims to make permanent customers rather than transient customers, attracted merely by the price feature of the week.

Some of the headlines from the Piggly Wiggly advertising are interesting as showing the continued stress on novelty and as arousing the interest of the public, so contrary to ordinary chain advertising policies. Some of them read as follows:

Hallelujah—Triplets at Last.
A Royal Princess is to Be Born.
1492—A Memorable Day It Was.
The Piggly Wiggly Price List.
Music, Flowers, and Women.
The Piggly Wiggly Beauty Contest.
Something Is Going to Happen.

Each of these headlines is designed to attract interest. Only one of them mentions price. All are selected to attract the reader's attention.

2. *Merchandise Advertising.*—This is confined mainly to emphasis on price. Figure 25 shows the form of advertising used by the W. L. Douglas Shoe Company, a form which has been used by them for many years both nationally and in local

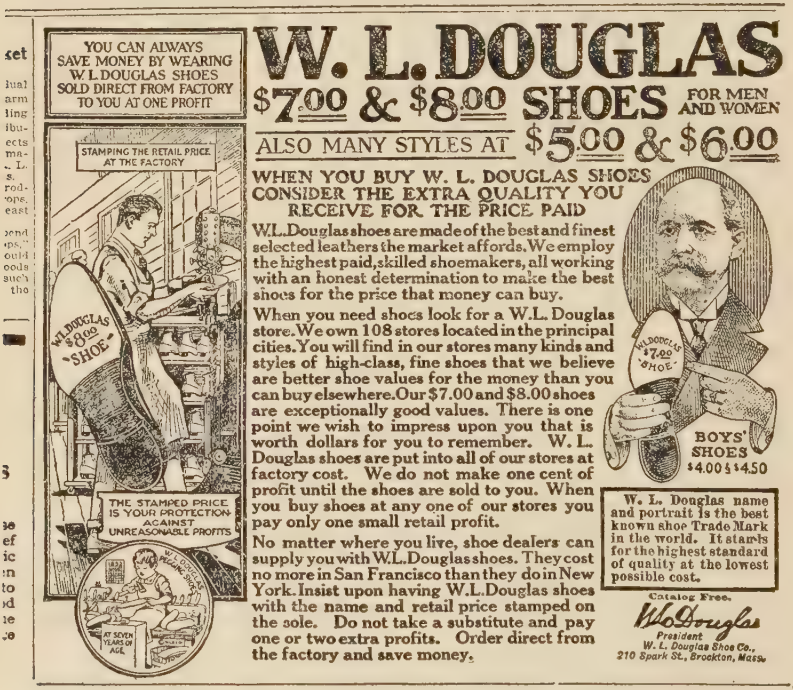

YOU CAN ALWAYS SAVE MONEY BY WEARING W. L. DOUGLAS SHOES SOLD DIRECT FROM FACTORY TO YOU AT ONE PROFIT
W. L. DOUGLAS
$7.00 & $8.00 SHOES FOR MEN AND WOMEN
ALSO MANY STYLES AT $5.00 & $6.00
STAMPING THE RETAIL PRICE AT THE FACTORY
THE STAMPED PRICE IS YOUR PROTECTION AGAINST UNREASONABLE PROFITS
AT SEVEN YEARS OF AGE
WHEN YOU BUY W. L. DOUGLAS SHOES CONSIDER THE EXTRA QUALITY YOU RECEIVE FOR THE PRICE PAID
W.L. Douglas shoes are made of the best and finest selected leathers the market affords. We employ the highest paid, skilled shoemakers, all working with an honest determination to make the best shoes for the price that money can buy.
When you need shoes look for a W.L. Douglas store. We own 108 stores located in the principal cities. You will find in our stores many kinds and styles of high-class, fine shoes that we believe are better shoe values for the money than you can buy elsewhere. Our $7.00 and $8.00 shoes are exceptionally good values. There is one point we wish to impress upon you that is worth dollars for you to remember. W. L. Douglas shoes are put into all of our stores at factory cost. We do not make one cent of profit until the shoes are sold to you. When you buy shoes at any one of our stores you pay only one small retail profit.
No matter where you live, shoe dealers can supply you with W.L. Douglas shoes. They cost no more in San Francisco than they do in New York. Insist upon having W.L. Douglas shoes with the name and retail price stamped on the sole. Do not take a substitute and pay one or two extra profits. Order direct from the factory and save money.
BOYS' SHOES $4.00 $4.50
W. L. Douglas name and portrait is the best known shoe Trade Mark in the world. It stands for the highest standard of quality at the lowest possible cost.
Catalog Free.
W. L. Douglas
President
W. L. Douglas Shoe Co.,
210 Spark St., Brockton, Mass.

Fig. 25.—Type of national advertising done by W. L. Douglas Shoe Company.

papers. The price appeal is stressed, with quality and durability slightly second.

Figure 26 shows the most common form of chain advertising, namely a price list. This particular advertisement is arranged so that certain items stand out more than others.

When it is a case of institutional advertising, the same copy may be used in many cities—in fact, everywhere. The appeal of the copy is universal. But when it comes to merchandise

advertising, a new element enters the equation. Conditions are frequently not the same in different cities. For example, a

FIG. 26.—Common form of local newspaper price advertising.

cigar store chain in some cities has to compete with a local cigar market, which proves strong competition. The character of the

local advertising must take this into consideration. Again, the wants of the community vary. The stock of a store in New York would be different from that of one in California or Florida.

Golden Rule VALUES
— vs. —
Sears-Roebuck Goods
See Exhibits in our Windows
From tomorrow until Saturday the Golden Rule center windows will be given to a display of goods bought at random from the Spring Catalog of Sears Roebuck and Company—and placed side by side with similar goods from our regular stocks.
The Goods, Qualities and Prices speak for themselves.
The compared merchandise is all ticketed, making comparisons easy.
Here you'll find an ocular demonstration of the fact that every day is Bargain Day at the Golden Rule—that we habitually sell for less.
Why Experiment With Pictures?
Invest in Goods — Not Descriptions
Let Maud Varvel Fill Your Mail Orders
If you do not live within personal shopping distance of a Golden Rule Store.
Bargain Day Every Day
"Comparisons prove the Golden Rule habitually sells for LESS —as witness the goods now being exhibited in Golden Rule Stores with their prices in comparison with goods from a large mail order house with its prices.
"With the Golden Rule it is Volume vs. Profits and the verdict is savings for its customers."
—From Golden Rule Editorial April 8th
Bargain Day Every Day
"Through the Golden Rule's quantity buying and distributing power it is enabled to sell goods at as low prices as any organization in America and IT DOES."
—From Golden Rule Editorial April 8th
and the Proof's Here—
Why Not SAVE Your Money at Home
—and Keep It There?
Idaho Falls, Parma, New Plymouth, Ontario, Ore., Pueblo, Colo.
Golden Rule
MAKE IT RIGHT STORES
C. C. Anderson Company
Boise, Caldwell, Nampa, Emmett, Mountain Home, Weiser, Payette.

FIG. 27.—Advertisement showing direct comparison between chain and mail order values.

Thus, the character of the merchandise advertising depends much on the size and distribution of the chain branches, and also on the policy of the company.

One shoe chain standardizes all its advertising, while one of its direct competitors allows the local manager to spend a certain amount. The result is that the former concern has a great deal to show for its advertising while the latter concern has never been able to teach its salesmen to be successful advertising copy writers.

OUTFITTERS FOR MEN WOMEN AND CHILDREN

WHY SIX STORES?

NOT so many years ago there were numerous men and women who looked forward to "a trip to the City" so that they might buy the latest in hats or the latest modes in suits.

The time came when customers from across the Bay, from the Valley and from Stanford and California were a big portion of our trade.

So we did the obvious thing—we met them half way! More than half way, for we took Roos Stores to their towns.

Now Roos Bros. have stores in Oakland, Fresno, Berkeley and Palo Alto. To these loyal customers we carry the latest and best of clothing for men, women and children.

And because these stores have all prospered the force of Six-Store Buying Power has gained momentum.

And the values in our two San Francisco Stores are the better for the bulked purchasing power made possible by the business of the other stores!

SIX-STORE BUYING POWER!

Roos Bros

Six-Store Buying Power

Stores in San Francisco, Oakland, Fresno, Berkeley and Palo Alto

HART SCHAFFNER & MARX CLOTHES

OUTFITTERS FOR MEN WOMEN AND CHILDREN

Welcome 7¼!

There are two persons that eagerly tell salesmen the size that they require. Maybe you can guess? Yes, the man with a large head and the women with a small foot.

The man says "Seven and three-quarters" as if it were a dare. And often it is—seldom can he find more than one or two hats from which to make a selection.

Six-Store Buying Power takes the dare!

Roos Stores have arranged to offer a complete assortment of these larger hats. Assorted styles and colors in smooth finish - assorted styles and colors in novelty hats, black to pearl; new models; fresh goods!

Another thought! Six-Store Buying Power permits the employment of an exceptional hat buyer. Thank him for this idea, you big fellows!

Roos Bros

Six-Store Buying Power

Stores in San Francisco, Oakland, Fresno, Berkeley and Palo Alto

HART SCHAFFNER & MARX CLOTHES

FIG. 28.—Advertising stressing the advantages of mass buying.

Special Advertising Motives.—It sometimes happens that local conditions would seem to make advertising desirable. For example, the ordinary policy of the Woolworth organization is to use display and stickers inside and outside the store. But in a store in Des Moines, located in the theater district, these ordinary publicity methods failed to draw trade. Consequently,

advertisements, quoting prices on certain specials offered during certain hours of the day, were run in daily papers.

Figure 27 illustrates a novel use of advertising by a chain system, where direct comparison is made between the store merchandise and that of a mail-order house. This was aimed to destroy the opinion, held by many people, that mail-order prices were lower. The ordinary appeal to local loyalty was entirely omitted, and the advertising was based purely on price comparison. The advertising was accompanied by an actual display, in the windows of the chain, of the items of merchandise compared, so that the public could judge at first hand of the relative quality, materials, and workmanship.

The advertising of the Roos Brothers chain, as illustrated in Fig. 28, emphasizes the advantages gained by Six Store Buying Power.

Advertising Policies.—The advertising agency has taken a definite place in the merchandising program of the average manufacturer, but its place in the chain field is not yet clearly marked. Most agencies show a tendency to keep away from local copy and much of the chain store advertising is necessarily local copy. The advertising should always be governed to a great extent by the conditions which exist in the various communities. Institutional advertising for chain stores has been handled and is handled in excellent fashion. But when it comes to merchandise advertising the chain management seems to prefer to have someone directly connected with the organization and its conditions do the work.

If the appeal of the advertising can be universal, the agency can be used to advantage. If it is necessary to watch local conditions, it would hardly be economical to use an agency, on account of the money expenditure which would be required to ascertain the exact local conditions. The chain itself is in a far better position to do this.

The chain may find it advisable to employ a contact man to look after local conditions and to travel constantly for this purpose. By sales records, the management is in a good position to judge the strength of the competition, and the contact man verifies the opinions of the local managers and analyzes the situation.

The chain is constantly facing the following problem in its publicity: It wishes to find a basis of publicity common to all stores, yet it must take into consideration the status of affairs in the various cities and towns where the stores of the company are located. Each local manager doubtless knows best what conditions are, but that local manager is not an advertising man and never will be. He is hired as a salesman and, unless he is a salesman first, last, and always, he is not going to make good on his job. But for the very reason that he knows local conditions so well, he may not be able to analyze them so well as an outsider. Hence, the value of the advertising agency as a specialist in advertising problems as contrasted with selling problems.

Some chains have tried a scheme whereby the advertising is blocked out at headquarters and space left for the local manager to insert local copy. At best, this is dangerous policy, because the local manager may or may not be competent to do this. Some chains have a number of advertising men attending to districts. If competition is particularly strong in some city, they have authority to run advertising more frequently. They take care of all space buying and positions in the papers.

Cooperative Advertising by Chains.—Associations of manufacturers and producers have often carried on advertising campaigns designed to increase the sales of all members of the industry. This idea has also been utilized by seven of the larger chains in and around Los Angeles, Cal.—the Sam. Seelig Company, the H. G. Chaffee Company, the Daley stores, Von's Stores, the Bay Cities Mercantile Company, and the Piggly Wiggly stores. A cooperative educational campaign setting forth the aims and policies of chain store systems was run in the newspapers every week end. The original appropriation was $10,000, paid for according to the number of stores in each chain. Thus, the Sam. Seelig Company paid four-thirteenths of the cost.

One advertisement listed 12 chain store policies which accrued to the benefit of the consumer.

First. Sell only the best values.
Second. Money-back guarantees on every article.
Third. Establish stores convenient to your home.
Fourth. Build up the neighborhood community.

Fifth. Fresh new stocks kept clean.
Sixth. Absolute truth in all advertisements.
Seventh. Lowest prices possible.
Eighth. Clean stores.
Ninth. Courteous service.
Tenth. Cash and carry.
Eleventh. Equal consideration for children.
Twelfth. A square deal and fair treatment for all.

The chain store in your neighborhood strives to be worthy of your patronage every day in the year.

Another advertisement reproduced the distinctive emblems of the seven chains. A third stressed the desirability of fresh food and the service rendered in this respect by the chain. The advertisement was headed:

We Guarantee Fresh Foods

First. Food products should reach your table quickly if they are to be served in prime condition.
Second. Motor trucks make daily visits to all of our stores.
Third. The chain store grocers sell foods before they can get stale.
Fourth. Buy *fresh foods* where they are received daily—at one of our 406 stores.

Summertime Makes This Even More Important

Other advantages resulting from cooperative effort have been taking action on any special national or local holiday, giving subscriptions to local charities, or avoiding the employment of a dishonest employee.

Cooperative Advertising with Manufacturers.—With the closer contact between the chain store, as a retail outlet, and the manufacturer has come the question of cooperative advertising. Both the chain and the manufacturer may benefit by this. Figure 29 shows the method in which the manufacturer's product and the chain's product were tied up in a window trim. This was a direct outcome of the growing policy of manufacturers to spend thousands of dollars to get retailers to cooperate and concentrate in a selling campaign.

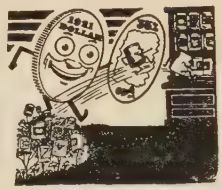
One progressive chain—and the same facts hold true in other cases—gets a special discount from some manufacturers, especially of a hitherto unknown item, to cover part of the cost of the advertising. The chain system says:

Every week we have a full page in the three local papers and two columns in the paper of each of the towns in which we have a store. Part of this space is, of course, given over to whatever the new item may be—

Fig. 29.—Form of cooperative window advertising.

to a new brand of canned meat, of a pumpkin flour, or a pancake syrup, etc. Chain stores demand all the discounts they can get and we are close buyers. This saving, small in itself, is of considerable importance when figured over the period of a year.

10-24-21



OUR BIG FALL CANNED GOODS SALE

35% OFF!

BIG stocks—BEST goods—LOWEST prices. *First-choice* of the *new* 1921 pack—at 35% off 1920 costs.

These prices make Early Buying PAY!

Corn Maine Style Dozen $1.18	can 10c	**Tomatoes** Standard Dozen $1.73 No. 3 Can	15c
Corn "Golden Rose" Extra Fancy Maine Pack Dozen $1.89	can 16c	**Tomatoes** "Golden Rose" Doz. $2.69 No. 3 Can	23c
Corn Golden Bantam Dozen $2.35	can 20c	**String Beans** Cut, Wax or Green Doz. $1.95	can 17c
Peas Fancy Sweet Wisconsin Dozen $1.63	can 14c	**String Beans** "Golden Rose" Whole Ref. Dozen $2.95	25c
Peas "Golden Rose" Sweet Sifted Dozen $2.69	can 23c	**Salmon** Pink Alaska Dozen $1.19	tall can 10c
Tomatoes Standard Dozen $1.18 No. 2 Can	10c	**Salmon** Red Alaska Dozen $2.95	tall can 25c
Tomatoes "Golden Rose" Doz. $1.73 No. 2 Can	15c	**Salmon** "Golden Rose" 40c 1 lb. Can 6 for $2.35 1-2 lb. can 6 for $1.47	25c
Cond. Milk "Standard" Can	16c	**Evap. Milk** "Van Camps" or "Borden's" 6 for 67c	can 11½c
Peaches Sliced, Heavy Syrup 6 for $1.29	can 22c	**Spinach** Extra Fancy Pack Dozen $2.35	No. 3 can 20c
Pineapple Finest Hawaiian Sliced, Dozen $2.85	No. 2 can 24c	**Asparagus Tips** 6 for $2.03 No. 1 Flat Can	35c
Pineapple Finest Hawaiian Grated Dozen $2.43	No. 2 can 21c	**Pork & Beans,** "Golden Rose" Dozen $2.25 No. 3 Can	19c
Pears Fancy New York 6 for $2.23	can 38c	**Pork & Beans,** "Golden Rose" Dozen $1.29 No. 2 Can	11c
Sardines Norwegian Smoked Dozen $1.47	can 12½c	**Crab Meat** ½ lb. can 38c 1 lb. can	75c
Raspberries or Strawberries 6 for $1.75	30c	**Sauerkraut,** 6 for 88c	can 15c

CHEESE lb. 29c
White or Young America Type

EGGS "Pine Grove" Fancy Selected **45c DZ**
'Wm. Elliott" Extra Fancy Fresh, Doz. 69c

NOTE: Owing to the frequent market changes, we cannot guarantee the price of Eggs. All other prices guaranteed for the entire week.

TEAS "Golden Rose" Finest Selection, Delicious Flavor, Air-Tight Packages. OOLONG, MIXED OR ENGLISH BREAKFAST (ORANGE PEKOE CEYLON. Lb. 49c) **45c**

Coffee "GOLDEN ROSE" **lb. 29c**
A Choice Old Coffee At Popular Price

Coffee "JOHN ALDEN" **lb. 39c**
Perfect Blend Old Crop Coffee

MACAROON SNAPS A Delightful Biscuit made with Fresh Eggs and flavored with Luscious Coconut Sale Price for This Week **lb. 19c**

PRUNES New Crop, Fancy Santa Claras, Several Cars Just Received 60-70 Size lb. **14c** 5 lbs. for **67c**

Milk Bread, "Golden Rose" in Wax Paper From Our Own Daylight Bakeshop Large Loaf 1 lb. 5 oz. **12½c**

The GINTER Co.

Stores Everywhere--Boston and Suburbs

Watch Ginter Co.'s Newspaper Advertisement in Boston Papers for our Special Weekly Sales

FIG. 30.—Counter leaflet featuring price.

Although this movement has not attained as yet any wide acceptance, it is always worth while to watch developments and be ready to take advantage of them when favorable opportunity offers itself.

As an example of a possible method of advertising, the handbill has been occasionally tried. These may be distributed from house to house, wrapped with merchandise, or left on the counter for the customer to pick up. Figure 30 shows an excellent example of such a handbill, issued weekly by a central office and delivered to the stores.

Conclusions.—Poor as the average advertising of the chain store has been, it has been immeasurably better than the average of its independent competitors. This independent has been at a tremendous disadvantage, for, except in small communities, it did not pay to advertise in the papers. Some stores have attempted to overcome this handicap by a cooperative campaign with a slogan, such as "Patronize Your Neighborhood Store." But whatever effect such a campaign may have, it can never become dangerous to the chain until the neighborhood store is able to compete with the chain on its own ground of price.

The future of chain advertising will be directed towards the chain competitor rather than towards the independent. Chain advertising is yet in its infancy. Chains are only just beginning to feel the necessity of advertising. Previously, sales have been made without the necessity of spending money on publicity. In the same way that chains are extending their services, they are extending their advertising. Customers must be induced to enter the store and, if they do not pass the store in sufficient numbers to secure adequate turnover, the advantages offered by the chain must be conveyed through some advertising medium such as the local newspaper.

CHAPTER XII

ORGANIZATION

Outline

The chain store executive:

1. Characteristics:
   (*a*) Started chain himself.
   (*b*) Rose from ranks.
   (*c*) Possesses executive qualifications in high degree.
2. Functions:
   (*a*) Supervisory:
      (1) Follows up store records, sales, etc.
      (2) Sees that all parts of machinery function properly.
   (*b*) Initiatory:
      (1) Expansion program.
      (2) Merchandising policies.
      (3) Miscellaneous.
3. Sources of information:
   (*a*) Digested records.
   (*b*) Able assistants.

The district manager:

1. Functions:
   (*a*) In charge of group of stores:
      (1) Travels and visits each at regular intervals.
   (*b*) Supervises taking of inventories, etc.
   (*c*) Consults about disposal of stock, etc.
2. Requisites:
   (*a*) Loyalty and honesty.
   (*b*) Ability to teach from own experience.
   (*c*) Thorough knowledge of merchandise and its adaptation:
      (1) To needs of community.
      (2) To time of year, day of week, etc.

The store manager.

The clerk.

Specialized functions:

1. Buyer.
2. Window trimmer.
3. Realty expert.
4. Advertising manager.
5. Accountant.
6. Merchandiser.

Remuneration of personnel:

1. Executives:
   (*a*) Paid out of profits or gross sales.
2. Managers:
   (*a*) Fixed minimum salary.
   (*b*) Bonus on volume of sales above minimum.
3. Clerks and salespeople:
   (*a*) Flat rate:
      (1) Poorest results.
   (*b*) Some form of commission payment:
      (1) Immediate improvement.

Methods of payment:

1. From home office.
2. By local manager:
   (*a*) From contingent fund.

CHAPTER XII

ORGANIZATION

The greatest strength of the chain store and its greatest weakness lie in the character of the personnel. Few executives have shown greater foresight, greater financial ability, or greater merchandising sense than the executives of the great chain systems. Woolworth, Kresge, Whelan, and Penney are names to conjure with in the business world. If it is true that the success of their respective chains is due to system, it is also true that they created the system, and that, without their guidance, the phenomenal growth of these particular chains would not have taken place.

But the weakness of the chain is equally apparent when the last links in the chain store are reached, that is, the clerks. Where, in the majority of cases, goods are sold which require no sales effort by the clerk, it has seemed superfluous to expect intelligent cooperation along sales lines from these people. Yet this assumption has always proved mistaken.

However little attention on the part of the clerk is required to sell the goods, courtesy and service have been found to exert a tremendous influence. And it is undeniably difficult to handle these clerks from a central office, perhaps hundreds of miles away, even through the medium of a store manager and the supervision of a district manager.

The sharper the competition, and the greater the price appeal, the stronger becomes the tendency to lay stress on methods and not men. If all the initiative is mobilized at headquarters, and managers and clerks become mere automatons, ambition, personality, and the progress of the chain through its branches are retarded, if not stopped altogether.

The Executive Functions.—Certain definite facts are true of all chain store executives:

1. They have risen from the ranks. They started behind the counter and learned the business from the ground up.

2. They rarely shift positions, except perhaps to start in for themselves.

3. The road to promotion is clearly marked.

In the United Cigar Stores, a man starts in as clerk, becomes store manager, then district sales manager, superintendent, and finally assistant vice-president with membership in the directorate and title of vice-president. This company follows a conscious policy of building up executive ability. For example, the directorate is composed of the chairman of the board, the president, the acting president, and 14 associate directors, each one of whom is at the head of a department. According to President Wise, their fundamental need is capable executives, and he says this is especially true of an organization divided into a large number of units, each of which functions as an individual entity. Thus, this company finds proper management possible only when the board functions directly through the heads of the departments.

The United States is divided by the company into five districts, and each district is put in charge of an assistant vice-president, who is traveling constantly. Directly under these officials are the district sales managers, who are in much closer touch with local stores and conditions.

The number of necessary links between the executive and the retail store ordinarily varies directly with the size of the chain. As long as it is possible, the chief executive keeps in touch with member stores, but as soon as the stores multiply his information concerning them must be gathered by intermediate links who, in addition to performing policing functions, sift information and deliver it to the central office.

In general, the executive functions of the head of a chain store system are two:

1. He must supervise the machinery which he himself or others have set running. He must see that nothing gets out of order; he must follow up indications on the daily executive report; he must be the court of last resort in case of dispute.

2. He must initiate ideas and sift out the best schemes from all those submitted to him by his subordinates. Ideas count in

chain store organizations as everywhere else. The continued success of a chain store must always be modeled on its ability to keep one step in advance of its independent competitors, and the ultimate responsibility for this rests on the shoulders of the executive.

Owing to the policy of promotion employed in chain systems, namely, that of merit, it is rare to find a chief executive who is not surrounded by a group of able men. Figure 31 shows the apportionment of the various operating functions in a Canadian grocery chain.

The executive of the chain has two methods of getting information, the one supplementing the other:

1. From the daily records, which keep track of stock and sales, furnish the means for tracing leaks, and help train clerks in habits of accuracy and honesty.

2. From the men directly reporting to him and with whom he consults regarding the company's policies. In the days when Mr. Whelan was actively connected with the United Cigar Stores he allowed himself but one vote at the regular weekly board meeting. If he advocated a measure at one meeting, which was adopted, several meetings later he would attack the measure from some other angle.

The executive reports, as illustrated later, show how all information is digested in tabloid form for the executive. This is in line with the accepted theory that an executive should not be immersed in detail. His business is to find subordinates who can do the detail work for him. It is an excellent practice, of course, to have the executive deal in percentages but, before leaving this point, it would be well to remind the reader again that only through a thorough knowledge of all the detail connected with the business is it possible for the executive to grasp the true significance of the percentages.

Traveling Superintendents.—As soon as a chain attains moderate size, the executive must delegate some of his functions. He promotes one of his store managers to take active charge of a group of stores, to visit them daily, or at least several times weekly, to advise with them as to their problems, and to see that everything is right. A district manager in the United Cigar Stores is in direct charge of about 15 stores in one city or an

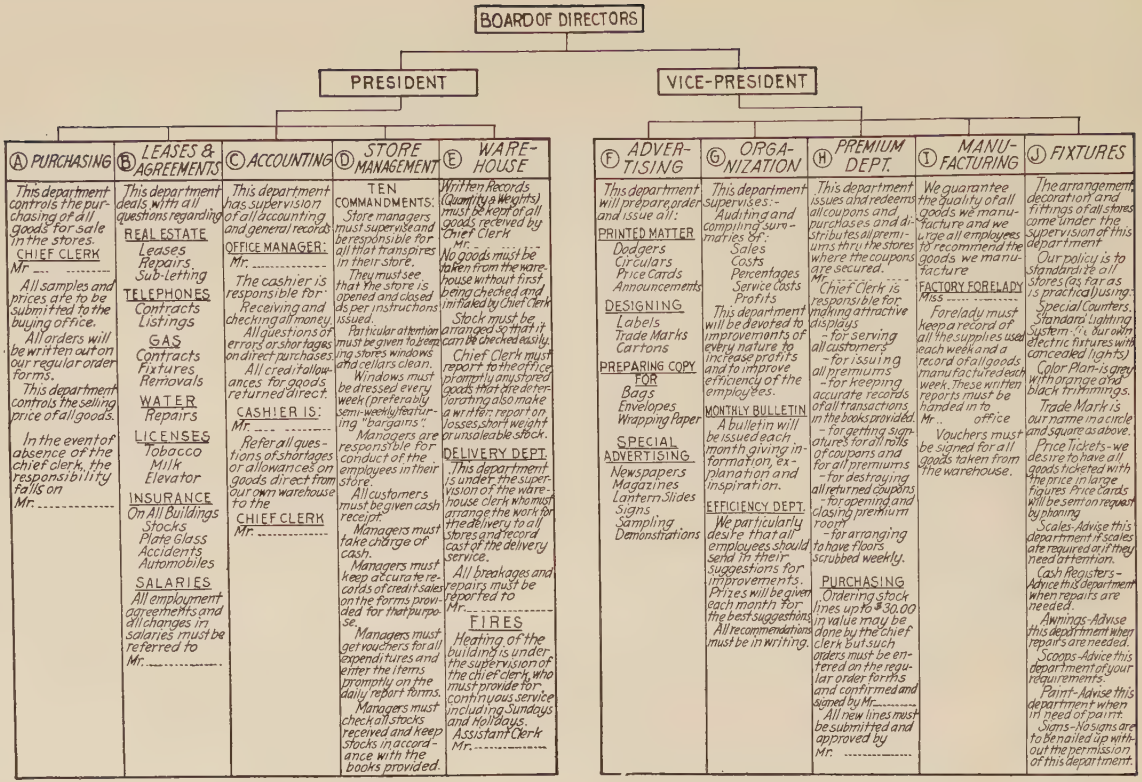

BOARD OF DIRECTORS
PRESIDENT
VICE-PRESIDENT
Ⓐ PURCHASING
This department controls the purchasing of all goods for sale in the stores.
CHIEF CLERK
Mr. ---
All samples and prices are to be submitted to the buying office.
All orders will be written out on our regular order forms.
This department controls the selling price of all goods.
In the event of absence of the chief clerk, the responsibility falls on
Mr. ---
Ⓑ LEASES & AGREEMENTS
This department deals with all questions regarding
REAL ESTATE
Leases
Repairs
Sub-Letting
TELEPHONES
Contracts
Listings
GAS
Contracts
Fixtures
Removals
WATER
Repairs
LICENSES
Tobacco
Milk
Elevator
INSURANCE
On All Buildings
Stocks
Plate Glass
Accidents
Automobiles
SALARIES
All employment agreements and all changes in salaries must be referred to
Mr. ---
Ⓒ ACCOUNTING
This department has supervision of all accounting and general records
OFFICE MANAGER:
Mr. ---
The cashier is responsible for:
Receiving and checking all money.
All questions of errors or shortages on direct purchases.
All credit allowances for goods returned direct.
CASHIER IS:
Mr. ---
Refer all questions of shortages or allowances on goods direct from our own warehouse to the
CHIEF CLERK
Mr. ---
Ⓓ STORE MANAGEMENT
TEN COMMANDMENTS.
Store managers must supervise and be responsible for all that transpires in their store.
They must see that the store is opened and closed as per instructions issued.
Particular attention must be given to keeping stores windows and cellars clean.
Windows must be dressed every week (preferably semi-weekly) featuring "bargains".
Managers are responsible for conduct of the employees in their store.
All customers must be given cash receipt.
Managers must take charge of cash.
Managers must keep accurate records of cost of sales on the forms provided for that purpose.
Managers must get vouchers for all expenditures and enter the items promptly on the daily report forms.
Managers must check all stocks received and keep stocks in accordance with the books provided.
Ⓔ WARE-HOUSE
Written Records (Quantity & Weights) must be kept of all goods received by Chief Clerk
Mr. ---
No goods must be taken from the warehouse without first being checked and initialed by Chief Clerk
Stock must be arranged so that it can be checked easily.
Chief Clerk must report to the office promptly any stored goods that are deteriorating also make a written report on losses, short weight or unsaleable stock.
DELIVERY DEPT.
This department is under the supervision of the warehouse clerk who must arrange the work for the delivery to all stores and record cost of the delivery service.
All breakages and repairs must be reported to
Mr. ---
FIRES
Heating of the building is under the supervision of the chief clerk, who must provide for continuous service including Sundays and Holidays.
Assistant Clerk
Mr. ---
Ⓕ ADVERTISING
This department will prepare orders and issue all:
PRINTED MATTER
Dodgers
Circulars
Price Cards
Announcements
DESIGNING
Labels
Trade Marks
Cartons
PREPARING COPY FOR
Bags
Envelopes
Wrapping Paper
SPECIAL ADVERTISING
Newspapers
Magazines
Lantern Slides
Signs
Sampling
Demonstrations
Ⓖ ORGANIZATION
This department supervises:-
Auditing and compiling summaries of:
Sales
Costs
Percentages
Service Costs
Profits
This department will be devoted to improvements of every nature to increase profits and to improve efficiency of the employees.
MONTHLY BULLETIN
A bulletin will be issued each month giving information, explanation and inspiration.
EFFICIENCY DEPT.
We particularly desire that all employees should send in their suggestions for improvements. Prizes will be given each month for the best suggestions.
All recommendations must be in writing.
Ⓗ PREMIUM DEPT.
This department issues and redeems all coupons and purchases and distributes all premiums thru the stores where the coupons are secured.
Mr. ---
Chief Clerk is responsible for:
making attractive displays
- for serving all customers
- for issuing all premiums
- for keeping accurate records of all transactions in the books provided.
- for getting signatures for all rolls of coupons and for all premiums
- for destroying all returned coupons
- for opening and closing premium room
- for arranging to have floors scrubbed weekly.
PURCHASING
Ordering stock lines up to $30.00 in value may be done by the chief clerk but such orders must be entered on the regular order forms and confirmed and signed by Mr. ---
All new lines must be submitted and approved by
Mr. ---
Ⓘ MANUFACTURING
We guarantee the quality of all goods we manufacture and we urge all employees to recommend the goods we manufacture
FACTORY FOR LADY
Miss ---
Forelady must keep a record of all the supplies used each week and a record of all goods manufactured each week. These written reports must be handed in to
Mr. ---
office
Vouchers must be signed for all goods taken from the warehouse.
Ⓙ FIXTURES
The arrangement, decoration and fittings of all stores come under the supervision of this department
Our policy is to standardize all stores (as far as is practical) using:
Special Counters.
Standard Lighting system - (i.e. our own electric fixtures with concealed lights)
Color Plan - is grey with orange and black trimmings.
Trade Mark is our name in a circle and square as above.
Price Tickets - we desire to have all goods ticketed with the price in large figures. Price Cards will be sent on request by phoning
Scales - Advise this department if scales are required or if they need attention.
Cash Registers - Advise this department when repairs are needed.
Awnings - Advise this department when repairs are needed.
Scoops - Advise this department of your requirements.
Paint - Advise this department when in need of paint.
Signs - No signs are to be nailed up without the permission of this department.

FIG. 31.—Organization chart of Loblaw stores, Toronto, Canada. (*Reprinted from Business Methods, March, 1920.*)

appropriate number in a more scattered locality. Assignment of stores to a manager is made on the basis of traveling facilities and distances between stores. These men are given careful estimates of what sales in each store should be, and it is one of their duties to consult with the store managers as to methods of attaining or exceeding these quotas.

These traveling superintendents often report directly to the chief executive, although in the largest chains this is impossible. George H. Hartford, the founder and creator of the Great Atlantic & Pacific Tea Company, for many years made it a point to see all his traveling superintendents in person. He was not satisfied to accept their reports but often dropped in on the store of the chain nearest the place he happened to be. He always called on the local store where he spent his vacations.

Where the chain is not large enough to hire special inventory men, the traveling superintendent must himself make periodic inventories of the stores in his district. Naturally, a man who is chosen for this position must have certain qualities:

1. He must be loyal. His opportunities for speculation and collusion are naturally broad; but it is to his credit that few cases of dishonesty are recorded.

2. He must be a good salesman. It takes a higher type of salesman to teach others how to sell than it does to sell in person.

3. He must know his merchandise. With his broader knowledge of conditions and wider experience, he should be able to help the store manager with many of his stock problems.

These traveling superintendents, or district managers, or whatever they are called, meet at stated intervals and discuss matters of general importance. They talk over policies which have worked or failed to work, go over sales campaigns, etc.

These men are directly in line for promotion, and have every interest in furthering the progress of the organization. They are the direct links between the managerial and the retailing functions.

The store manager and the clerk are discussed in separate chapters, but nothing as yet has been said about methods of payment and remuneration for the various grades of employees. Before these are taken up in detail there is one further point to discuss in regard to the personnel.

Specialization.—The larger the chain store becomes the more profitable it is to divide and subdivide functions among specialists who are experts in their own lines and receive large salaries for the work they do.

For example, the proprietor of a small chain probably does the buying himself, sees to the window trims, prices articles, and, in brief, does most of the work himself. Soon he finds it necessary to have someone do his purchasing for him. He does not have time to look out for it. Next, he has to get a bookkeeper and perhaps an expert accountant. As his chain grows, his staff of experts becomes larger. Someone has to look after the advertising. Finally, he has to have someone to take charge of the real estate.

The number and the functions of the specialists vary with the type of chain. Most chains have traveling auditors who drop in at intervals and audit the individual stores. One large bakery chain employs traveling bakers and traveling merchandisers who operate out of the home office and are not attached to any given district or territory, but make the rounds of the entire country.

The aim is always to keep organization costs down to the lowest possible point, based on experience, which is figured on a general maximum production as against a general minimum payroll. The specialist must demonstrate the worth of his services or he is dropped. That is, the real estate must prove a good investment, the window trims must sell goods, the house organ must instill an *esprit de corps* throughout the organization, etc.

Remunerating the Personnel.—How shall a man be paid what he earns? Few men are satisfied with a fixed salary unless there is opportunity ahead. The chain organizations have probably worked out the most logical and best functioning methods of remunerating employees yet evolved. In general, the following principle is put into effect: After a store attains a certain quota, the manager gets a certain percentage of all sales over this amount. The district managers are rewarded from earnings made by district stores.

To take a specific example, the Woolworth chain pays cash salaries to the founders, the stenographers, and the clerks. Everybody else gets paid on the basis of yearly earnings. The

officials in the head office at New York are paid on the basis of earnings made by the entire organization. The district manager of each of 11 districts is paid on the basis of what his district earns. The manager and the assistant manager take a certain percentage of what their particular store earns. Each man gets his full share of profits. Every employee receives a cash bonus after being with the company for one year, and this is increased by the same amount each year for five years. If a girl leaves to be married after she has been with the company three years she is given a cash wedding present.

In the New York Department of Labor investigation of the employment of women in five-and-ten-cent stores, it was found that

> The manager works on a drawing account and receives a percentage of profits on sales at the end of the year. The percentage of his profits is apparently a matter of individual bargaining between the central or district chain office and the manager himself, although in some cases percentage rates are fixed for certain class stores. Under this system, the manager very naturally has every incentive to put his store on a paying basis, realizing that his own earnings depend upon the number of dollars in profits the store succeeds in making.

The United Cigar Stores never give a share in the profits of the store but base extra payments entirely on sales. This rule is made so that the clerks may not be induced to sell the goods with the most profits in them. Each head clerk receives a certain percentage of receipts for his share of the business, while each clerk receives a salary commensurate with what he sells. The success of this method of payment is plainly demonstrated by the fact that the labor turnover in this concern is small.

In the March, 1921, issue of *Administration*, President Wise goes into further detail. Among other things, he says that in paying men for their services the company does everything possible to increase their earning capacities. The stores work for business on a monthly rating. In addition to fixed minimum salaries, commissions are paid for increased volume of sales. Ratings are so figured that extra compensation is earned as sales increase. In addition, a bonus is given employees ranking above store managers, as an incentive to increase business in the stores under their supervision.

The total volume for the year is arbitrarily computed and month by month vouchers are distributed, based on this volume. Vouchers have a money value which increases as the amount aimed at is reached. Mr. Wise believes that this is the most scientific method of profit sharing yet evolved.

The Piggly Wiggly Company's method of paying its employees is interesting. One of its stores employs ordinarily from two to three men, with five men in the big stores. All employees receive regular salaries. In each store there is a salary allowance of 3 per cent on gross sales of $2,000 per week and 1½ per cent on everything over that. Out of the percentage allowance the salaries must first be paid and then the remainder is distributed equally among the employees.

For example, if one of their stores did a business of $4,000 in one week, the amount available for salaries would be $90, that is, 3 per cent on the first $2,000 and 1½ per cent on the last $2,000. If there were three employees, one receiving $30, the second $25 and the third $20 a week, the payroll would be $75 a week, leaving $15 to be divided, or $5 for each employee.

A fairly large cash-and-carry grocery chain gives all its men a salary and one-half of 1 per cent of the gross sales in their stores. Previously the men had been given a bonus at Christmas, but this policy was abandoned in favor of the per cent on sales, paid quarterly. The manager can see with his own eyes just what he is making at any time.

One of the officials of this chain says:

> We don't underpay our clerks. It isn't safe. They're handling our money, and if we don't give them enough to live on, it practically forces them to be dishonest. We have very little trouble with dishonesty. Also, our labor turnover is small. Some of our managers have worked for us from ten to fifteen years.

In another grocery chain, managers are paid on a basis of, say, $30 to $35, with a commission of 1 per cent after their salaries at $35 a week equals sales on an agreed percentage basis. In such cases as these, salaries range from $50, which is about the lowest, to whatever amount of business the manager can transact.

Helpers may obtain as high as $17 to $25 a week, depending largely on the report made of them by the manager. Although

$25 is high for this class of labor, it attracts an excellent grade of man, who is directly in line for promotion to manager in another store.

The examples given are typical of the majority of chains. Executives and specialists receive high salaries, which is counterbalanced by the comparatively low salaries paid managers and clerks.

The Penney Plan.—J. C. Penney, head of a chain of 500 dry goods stores in the West and Middle West, has a scheme for remunerating his personnel which has received wide publicity and a description of which is well worth reproducing here. We quote from the *Dry Goods Economist* of May 5, 1920:

> The Penney plan may be summarized by calling it an original principle of organization in management, founded upon a real belief in the inherent honesty of human nature and the idea that nothing stimulates a man like the knowledge that hard, intelligent work will bring a certain and substantial reward. This plan results in an intensive cooperation in the passing on of a man's knowledge and qualities of leadership to his helpers in the business, and an endless chain of the development of the individual.
>
> The plan involves the stimulation of the growth of each new store until its owners are able to start up another, which in turn will send out other branches. The stock of the parent company is classified by stores and a separate set of books is kept for each store.
>
> Mr. Penney owns all the stock of Store No. 1. In Store No. 2 he owns two-thirds and the manager one-third. In Store No. 3 he has one-third, his partner, the manager of Store No. 2, has one-third and the manager of No. 3 the other one-third. Suppose it is decided that Store No. 2 shall start a new branch, in charge of a man who has shown partnership caliber. Mr. Penney retains one-third interest, the new partner getting the other one-third Mr. Penney held.
>
> This store, No. 4, later starts a fifth store in which it is desired that the manager shall have an interest. Then Mr. Penney, as the senior partner drops out, and takes none of the new stock, so that the stock in that store is held in equal shares by its manager, the manager of Store No. 4, its parent, and the manager of Store No. 3. Mr. Penney, of course, retains his interest in the other four from which he may start branches in which he will have a share.
>
> Mr. Penney is constantly training new men for partnership. The men who are admitted to this partnership pay for their interests out of their earnings. There are stores in the chain in which Mr. Penney

holds no stock, there being room for but three partners, but it is not his idea to appropriate all of a good thing. He prefers to have a number of stores in each of which he owns a part interest, rather than a few stores in which he owns all the stock, and, as store after store opens new branches, the number of these part interests increase.

The men in charge of these stores never fear that someone they are training will come up to supplant them. They give these men every encouragement and assistance, for the sooner they develop men able to manage a store the sooner will there be another store in which both will share the profits. In other words, under the Penney plan it is not a matter of starting a store and then looking for a manager. The manager is made first and then a store is made for him to operate.

The common stock is numbered in series according to the number of the store which it represents. The owners of store No. 10 will hold series No. 10 stock. Every time a store is opened a man is advanced to partnership, and five other men, all of partnership caliber, are taken into the company.

The initial salary is small, for a good reason. When a man must make a small salary stretch a long way, he works all the harder to reach the point where he will become a sharer in dividends. And the economy he learns while living on little is as useful in handling the income of a store as of a home.

The Penney plan of remunerating employees by making them partners in the business has succeeded in this chain. How far the same principles could be extended to other chain fields is problematical. As far as is known, the plan introduced by Mr. Penney goes farther than any other in allowing the employees to obtain a share in the business and active participation in its management.

Remunerating Salespeople.—In the very first instance, it is necessary to distinguish between a clerk with no prospects, or at least very faint prospects, of advancement, and a sales clerk in direct line for a local managership. Some chains find it necessary to employ a great many salespeople, mostly girls, who merely work for the salary they obtain. Other chains find it possible to make the salesmen they employ constantly interested in their work by the knowledge that as soon as they have made good they will be promoted.

The second point to note is the authority of the store manager over his selling personnel. Ordinarily, the number of clerks

employed in a chain store is small compared with other retail stores, because of efficient management, more specialized stock, etc. Stores may be so small that the manager can run them alone with occasional assistance. The five-and-ten-cent stores are by far the largest employers of cheap sales help, and have found the labor problem particularly perplexing.

Local managers are ordinarily allowed to hire their own help, provided the payroll is kept within certain percentage limits in relation to sales. This percentage figure may come as low as 8 per cent in the larger chains and as high as 14 per cent in the smaller chains. The payroll, by means of hiring extra workers for Saturdays and holiday seasons, is kept at a fairly constant figure, a deficit during the slack season being made up by a surplus at Christmas.

The old method which five-and-ten-cent store chains used in remunerating sales girls was to pay what the labor market required at the moment, and no more. This, of course, brought with it an exceedingly high labor turnover. The five-and-ten-cent store was the last resort when out of work. Naturally, this caused a low degree of efficiency in the sales force.

Conditions are now changing. The progressive chains have come to see that even the policy of "letting the goods sell themselves" can be overdone. In the past, managers have often complained of difficulty in keeping within the percentage limit allowed them for labor. It has been hard to convince the local managers that it pays to teach the clerks better selling methods. The worst temptation the chain manager has to face is the availability of cheap help. One grocery chain found it possible to get men or boys to work from two until six and all day Saturday for $5 a week. An assistant of this sort sweeps the floor, washes the windows, packs away the supplies, and generally reduces store overhead.

But facts and statistics have been tabulated which seem to prove conclusively that higher paid clerks, even in five-and-ten-cent stores, are a good investment. One chain in particular has conducted a regular campaign to educate its managers in regard to the benefits of better paid clerks. Following is a copy of a notice sent to managers on April 1, 1921:

Decreasing Salary Per Cent by Increasing Efficiency

The average salary paid salespeople at Store No. X the first three months of 1920 was $15.92 per week. The average number of salespeople employed was 111.

The average salary for the same period in 1921 is $19.29. Number employed 103.

Salaries for March, 1920, averaged 10½ per cent, and for March, 1921, 8½ per cent. Is this not conclusive evidence that paying good salaries to efficient salespeople is productive of better results than cutting salaries and employing second-grade help?

Study your own store on the above basis. It should develop something of real interest.

Efficient sales service cannot be obtained without the cooperation of the central organization and the local managers. It takes time, of course, to effect such a change as the method of paying salespeople. But the trend of the time is in favor of better and more scientific handling of the personnel, and this development in the five-and-ten-cent store field is directly in line.

Wage Rates for Clerks.—Sales clerks are ordinarily paid a flat rate. Occasionally, there is a wage plus a commission on sales, or a straight commission with no wage guaranteed. It has been found almost universally true that the flat rate gives the poorest returns, as far as sales efforts on the part of the clerks are concerned. Wherever commissions are given, or bonuses for increased sales, the results are almost immediately apparent in the attitude of the clerk and the volume of sales. Some shoe stores follow a plan by which the clerk is given a bonus only on goods which the company desires to sell. That is, on staple lines there is no bonus, because little selling effort is required. On seasonal and special goods there is a large bonus, because the selling effort is correspondingly high.

Generally speaking, the more sales effort there is required to sell the goods the higher salary must be paid to the sales clerk. In many chains, salaries can be kept low because of the prospect for advancement held out to the clerks. In the chain drug stores, a commission is usually paid clerks for selling private brands, or it may be possible for the manufacturer of a nationally advertised article to make some arrangement by which the clerks are given a bonus on what they sell of his goods.

Returning again to the five-and-ten-cent stores, it has been stated that, in the ordinary five-and-ten-cent store, salesmanship is at a low premium. The tendency at most counters is to make the selling almost automatic. The goods are carefully displayed where they can be examined by the customers and the prices are clearly marked. Some stores are beginning to try out a plan of self-service and the only thing demanded of the salesgirl is wrapping and making small change. At other counters, however, it is still necessary to display goods, to answer questions, and to persuade customers that the goods on hand are exactly those desired. Ribbons, stockings, hats and hat trimmings, underclothes, etc. cannot approach maximum sales without the personal contact between the saleswoman and the customer. It is interesting that in three stores the only salesgirls on a commission basis were those at the music counters, and the difference between the attitude towards customers of these girls with their obvious desire to sell goods, and the attitude of the general salesgirl, who seemed to care little or not at all, was apparent in every case.

Approximately 84 per cent of the workers in five-and-ten-cent stores belong to the selling force, all women, with few exceptions. In the Department of Labor survey, exactly one-half of the full-time women workers received less than $13.49 a week. Two-thirds of them received less than $15 a week. Ordinarily, the smaller the city the lower the wage paid, and this holds true as a rule in all chain stores. An assistant or helper in a city store is sure to obtain a larger wage than is paid for the same service in a country store.

Methods of Payment.—Ordinarily, checks for wages, bonuses, etc. are mailed direct from the home office. In some cases, however, the local manager pays in cash. It is usual, however, in such cases to obtain a receipt from the employee or have him sign in a book or on a special form which may be forwarded to the central office.

In some chains, checks for employees are delivered or mailed from the central office to reach each branch a day or so before pay day. Then the local manager distributes these checks, cashing them if the employee desires, the indorsed check serving as a receipt.

In some cases, wages may be paid from a contingent fund. Under any condition, canceled checks or receipts from employees must be turned in to the central office. If any employee is dismissed for any reason, the local manager should be authorized to pay directly and immediately.

Conclusions.—A definite form of organization is to be found in chain systems. Although the actual duties of the various grades may differ, there is the common requirement that a man start at the bottom and work up. There is also a division of functions at headquarters among specialists in various lines, such as buying, realty, advertising, window trimming, etc.

In regard to remuneration, the aim is and should be to reward each man according to the work he does, and, for better effecting this result, various forms of bonus systems have been introduced. In the average case:

1. The executives receive fairly large remuneration, at least as high as they would probably earn if working for themselves. This policy is profitable because the executives are the brains of the organizations, and parsimony in this direction does not pay.

2. Store managers receive some form of payment beyond a fixed weekly or monthly salary.

3. It has been found that even salespeople become more efficient if they are given some form of extra recompense for efficient sales service.

CHAPTER XIII

TRAINING MEN FOR PROMOTION

Outline

Promotion policies:
1. Start in at bottom:
   (*a*) Learn selling first hand.
   (*b*) Know stock.
2. Fill executive positions within organization:
   (*a*) Train suitable material.
3. Make promotions on merit:
   (*a*) Length of service no criterion of efficiency.
   (*b*) No policy of favoritism.

The road to promotion:
1. Clerk.
2. Manager.
3. District supervisor.
4. Executive position.

Technique of promotion:
1. Controlled by individual records.
2. Dependent on:
   (*a*) Results obtained:
      (1) Power to make sales.
3. Shifting men as a form of promotion.

The employment department:
1. Methods of obtaining clerks.

Training clerks:
1. In selling:
   (*a*) Policy of the chain.
   (*b*) Store routine.
   (*c*) Service to customers.
   (*d*) Knowledge of product sold.
   (*e*) Miscellaneous.
2. Use of model store:
   (*a*) Arrangement:
      (1) Allowance for variations in stock.
   (*b*) Arrangement of displays.
   (*c*) Store conferences.

Desirability of inspectors:
1. To test selling knowledge of clerks.
2. To test following rules and policies established for clerks to follow.
3. To collect new selling ideas.

CHAPTER XIII

TRAINING MEN FOR PROMOTION

It is generally agreed that the chain's most difficult problem is to pick out and train its men. As the chains expand in size, both in number of member stores and in territorial extent covered, this problem grows more weighty. A point is finally reached where it is necessary to entrust the choosing and the training of the personnel to a separate department. It is difficult to state definitely at exactly what point in its development a chain should institute a personnel department. Roughly speaking, such a department is necessary as soon as the personal touch, which the owner of a small independent store maintains over each of his employees, is lost. As the chain grows larger, the functions of the personnel department will increase. Its duties include:

1. Selection of employees.
2. Education and training.
3. Health.
4. Service and maintenance of morale.

Personnel Administration.—According to Tead and Metcalf's "Personnel Administration":

> Personnel administration is the direction and the coordination of the human relations of any organization with a view to getting the maximum necessary production with a minimum of effort and friction, and with proper regard for the genuine well-being of the worker.

These questions are treated in this and the following chapters. Personnel administration is comparatively new in its application to the retail field, although for some time it has been used with excellent results in industrial concerns. One large chain organization with headquarters in New York has gone so far as to test its entire personnel for mental alertness. The old process of trying out a man on a job was not furnishing minor executive positions fast enough to fill the demand. The problem was put

up to the Bureau of Personnel Research, an organization connected with the Carnegie Institute of Technology. C. S. Yoakum, the director of personnel research for that institution, gives the following account of results:

Figure 32 shows the results obtained. The organization was divided into three groups: executives, minor executives, and clerks. These groups correspond to distinct divisions within the company. The scores, and the number of individuals making each score, are shown. The highest possible score is 184. Five clerks, for example, made scores between 0 and 20, while only two made scores above 140. In plotting the chart not all the clerks were taken, but only a representative

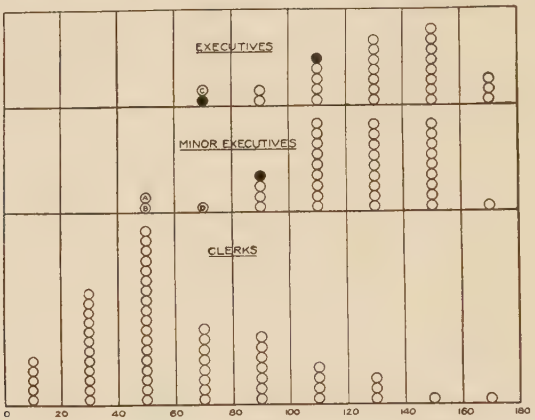


FIG. 32.—Showing the results of a mental test applied to every member of a large chain, from executives to clerks. Each circle represents one member of the organization. Executives of the company all scored above 60, minor executives averaged 119, while in the clerical group the average was only 55. (*Forbes Magazine, Jan.* 21, 1922.)

group. If all the clerks were shown, the distribution of scores from low to high would be in the same proportion as is illustrated. Above the line of the clerks, however, each small circle represents an individual. The chart as a whole represents accurately the distribution of scores of the company's 2,000 employees.

The executives of the company all scored above 60 in the test, and only four fell below 100. The average for the group was 127. The minor executives ranged all the way from 45 to 166, while the average was 119. In this group only seven individuals out of thirty-five fell below 100. In the clerical group the range of scores was extremely wide—from 3 to 160—but the average was only 55. Only 15 per cent scored above 100. The individuals composing this 15 per cent are just

as intelligent, just as mentally alert, and have just as great capacity for acquiring knowledge and skill as have the executives of the company. Comparing the averages of the groups, however, it is clearly shown that different levels of intelligence are represented by the different groups.

The black dots on the chart indicate that one executive and one minor executive left the company because of inefficiency before the results of the test were known. The circle marked *A* indicates a

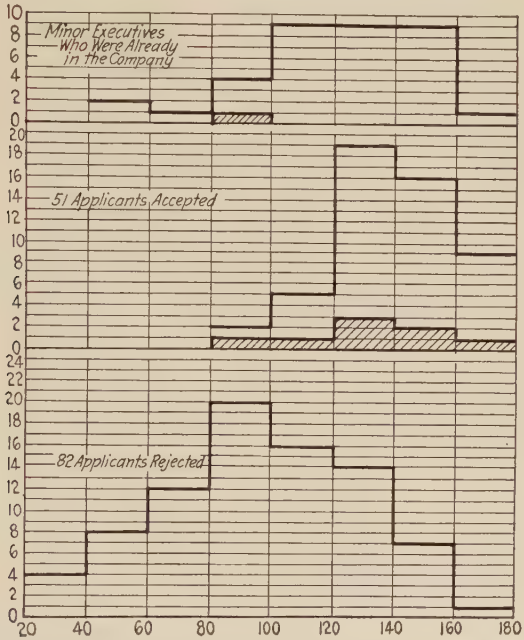


FIG. 33.—Of 133 applicants for minor executive positions examined during a period of 10 months, 82 were rejected and 51 accepted, of whom 42 are making good. The figures at the right represent the number of applicants and the shaded parts resignations. (*Forbes Magazine, Jan.* 21, 1922.)

minor executive who took four years to absorb that training usually given in one. Circle *B* represents a man whose position is due solely to long experience and training, but who will probably never go further. *C* is doubtful but is being given another chance.

As a result of the tests no minor executives were hired unless they scored above 80 and between 80 and 100 only if other qualifications were specially good. After being in operation ten months, Fig. 33 shows the results secured.

One hundred and thirty-three applicants have been examined. Eighty-two have been rejected. Twenty-four were automatically rejected because they scored below 80 in the test; 20 others scoring between 80 and 100 were rejected because of low score and the lack of any other specially good qualifications. The remaining 38 were rejected on other than a mental alertness basis. During the same period 51 applicants were accepted. Two of this number scored between 80 and 100, and were hired because of very good recommendations. One of these has already been asked to resign because of his inefficiency. Forty-nine of the accepted applicants scored above 100. Of this number only five have proved unsatisfactory, though two others have resigned for outside reasons. Forty-two, or 82 per cent, are making good and will furnish dependable material for the making of future executives. The company considers this a successful ten months of selection. Hereafter the critical score will be set at 100.

Intelligence, of course, is not the only requisite for an employee of executive caliber, but it is an essential qualification. Tests for other qualifications are being carried out and developed. The aim of the intelligence test is, as Mr. Yoakum says

to measure human capacities in observation, in concentration, in simple reasoning, in understanding, and in handling ideas according to instructions. All of these human intellectual powers become of increasing importance as business responsibility increases.

Promotion Policies.—Certain principles of promotion can be applied to nearly all chains.

1. A man must start in at the bottom and work up. That is, he must first of all learn to sell goods himself, he must become acquainted with his stock, must find out the customers' likes and dislikes. In the Woolworth organization every man, from the store manager up, begins at the bottom. Virtually everyone in the United Cigar Stores organization has served behind the counter.

2. Higher positions are filled from within the organization. It is a fixed policy in all established chains to fill vacancies from men who have actually trained for those positions. The United Cigar Stores Company at their main office never allows a position to remain vacant for a moment, even during vacations. The man below always takes the place of his superior.

3. Promotion is made on merit alone not because of length of service, influence, or any other reason. Men who do not fit eliminate themselves or are eliminated. No man whose personal views are at variance with the policy of the organization can hope to be promoted.

The United Cigar Stores Company, with a personnel of 6,500, believes that plenty of executive ability is always available. In addition, it recruits the ranks of its buyers from the clerks. In every chain, good clerks are consistently promoted to be managers, and good managers to be supervisors or district managers.

But there is one class in a chain store organization which has little chance for advancement, and this is the girl in the five-and-ten-cent store. Opportunities for her are rare. She may become a bookkeeper, a floor walker, a window dresser, or, in rare cases, an assistant manager, but on the whole she has little to look forward to in the organization, for two reasons, one reacting on the other:

1. The girl employed, at the salary paid, usually has inferior intelligence and possesses little sales talent, that is, she is not especially fitted to make herself invaluable to the organization and to put herself in line for promotion.

2. Few five-and-ten-cent stores have spent any time or money in trying to better the sales talent they have.

But, with this exception, the road to promotion is generally open, and in few other lines of business is it possible for the worker to get a squarer deal from the management.

A Man's Record.—Progressive chains do, and should do, everything possible to increase the sales effort of the personnel. Then, by their careful system of records, they can watch the progress of a member of their organization from the moment he steps behind the counter. They have a record of the sales in that store prior to the time he stepped into it, and it is an easy matter to compare this old record with the new performance.

In the National Drug Stores organization, the facts about every man are noted on a card. When a vacancy occurs, these cards are consulted, and the man who apparently possesses the most desirable characteristics for the position is sent for and interviewed.

The United Cigar Stores Company lays especial stress on courtesy. Those who do best to uphold this policy are presented with a gold watch and a testimonial. President Wise says:

> The power to give service would stand a man in as good stead as anything for promotion. The man who combines honesty of purpose and loyalty to the company with active interest in promoting goodwill and satisfying customers is so valuable to the United Cigar Stores that he is bound to climb rapidly.

Courtesy, without doubt, is a difficult quality to tabulate on cards. But it is also true that courtesy almost invariably results in increasing sales, and sales are simple matters to record. In addition, the United Cigar Stores rely on a department of inspection, since they have found the average clerk does not like to say "thank you" unless he is prodded. Therefore, a clerk is checked by sales records and by personal inspection.

Naturally, a store manager is judged by the results he obtains from his store. It is not always easy to determine just what a manager should sell from a particular store, since the volume of sales may be affected by matters outside his control. Thus, a store manager should not be judged by what other stores are doing, but rather by what happened in his own store previously. In general, of course, if sales increase in the majority of stores, the rest of the stores should show this same increase unless there are reasons, beyond the control of the manager, to prevent.

Clerks on a commission basis have often complained that at some counters it was possible to make twice as much commission, with half the amount of work, as at other counters. Some managers have tried to equalize this by moving poor-selling articles to main traffic channels or by having a bargain counter adjoining, etc.

In all chains, records of employees should be kept on some basis which will fairly show the individual merits of every man. In a small chain, whoever decides on promotions will probably know the personnel individually, but in larger chains, or chains the links of which are widely scattered, promotion is largely a matter of record, supplemented by personal interview.

Shifting Men.—A man may be shifted for several reasons:

1. To accustom the man to several positions. Some chains habitually shift their organization, to give all concerned a fresh

viewpoint. Also, every position has a number of understudies, ready to take up the regular duties of the position if for any reason it becomes necessary. Some chains find it advisable to shift managers of stores from one city to another temporarily to give them fresh selling ideas, and in their absence the assistant manager takes charge, and is given an opportunity to win his spurs.

2. As a form of promotion. Where a store manager is dependent on the profits or sales of his store for his salary, it is a frequent practice to move a manager who has done well to a bigger or more profitable store. This is equivalent to increasing his pay and promoting him.

There is something to be said against this policy, however. It is not always desirable to break up business acquaintanceships. That is, a manager may be a positive drawing card to a store through the influence of his sales personality. This is true, of course, only where the manager meets his trade personally and would not apply to a chain department or variety store. But even in those cases the manager probably has a thorough knowledge of local conditions which benefits both him and the chain directly.

3. As a form of demotion. If a manager fails to make good at a certain store and yet possesses many of the qualities requisite in a manager, it is sometimes possible to move him somewhere else. For example, a manager may succeed wonderfully in a small store where everything is personally attended to by himself, yet fail in a larger store because he lacks the ability to handle other men. The logical move would be to bring this man back to the small store.

Recruiting the Personnel.—Higher positions are filled from the ranks in the manner previously described. Also, it has been noted that a man should start at the bottom. Now, where are the men to be found to fill these initial positions? The somewhat original method used by Mr. Penney in obtaining his men has already been described elsewhere. The success of his method is sufficiently justified by results.

Larger chains have employment departments. An applicant is required to meet certain definite qualifications. There is an unusually large proportion of rejections. Previous selling experi-

ence is not a necessity. Some chains regard it as an objection, because they find it far easier to teach a man with no preconceived selling ideas their policies and plans. In the chains which use scientific methods of hiring, there is a small labor turnover. That is, men who are chosen for employees enter the service of the chain with the idea of ultimately becoming store managers, and not merely of working until they tire. Work on the lower rungs of the chain ladder is particularly exacting. Although there are certain closing hours, these are by no means fixed, and the clerk may often have to remain after the store is closed to pack away goods received from the warehouse ready for the next day's trade, or for other routine work. But the opportunity which the chain offers to a man without capital of his own to become a store manager insures the average chain an adequate supply of men of the right type.

So far as the woman clerk is concerned, the New York Department of Labor reports that the selection of the girls for the jobs is governed by what type of girl can be obtained at the particular time she is needed for the lowest wage the market offers. Its finding was that any idea of a permanent, satisfied, well-trained working force was strangely absent; girls came and went. This was particularly true in factory towns, where the girls in good times worked in a factory and when they were laid off or got tired of factory work clerked in five-and-ten-cent stores for a while.

There is no accepted practice of hiring or choosing employees, but it is safe to draw the following conclusion: Since the chain organization is dependent on its men as much as on its methods, no effort expended in securing men of the right type can be wasted.

Training the Salesman.—There are two methods of training the salesman: the first before he actually goes behind the counter, and the second training him after he has begun to sell. The educational department ordinarily takes charge of actually training the salesmen. This pretraining period is the direct outcome of the recognition of the value of such training in increasing sales. It enables the chain and the clerk to earn more money.

The chief defect of a chain, and particularly of a large one, is the lack of a personal touch. If the organization can take its

men at the beginning of their service and teach them just what the organization itself is, the nature of the goods, and, in addition, give them a brief but thorough course in retail salesmanship, much will have been accomplished.

Almost every chain has a particular policy in regard to the conduct of the clerk while making a sale. It is important that this conduct be standardized. A customer going into one branch of the chain should find exactly the same service that he finds in another branch. The only way to standardize service is to teach the man just what is wanted in the first place and then make him hold to that standard. Therefore, one method of training, although a negative one, is keeping inspectors on the road, unknown to the clerks, to see if policies and practices are being carried out.

In large cities or centers of population classes of salesmen are in daily session. An educational director is in charge. In a few weeks he can teach the intelligent salesman facts which experience might not drill into his head for years. The salesman thus trained lacks only experience. Where stores are located at distant points, new salesmen may be trained in district offices. For example, a chain with an educational department in Chicago might refer an applicant in Maine to district offices in Boston. If the application were accepted, the salesman might be trained direct in the Boston district office, and receive his first selling experience under supervision in the district store.

Generally speaking, salesmen are trained along the following lines:

1. Policy of the chain.
2. Knowledge of the product or products sold.
3. Arrangement of the store.
4. Store routine.
5. Service to customers.
   (*a*) Courtesy.
   (*b*) Remembering faces, etc.
6. Miscellaneous points, according to the nature of the chain.

In other words, salesmen are taught standardized sales methods applicable to the particular chain.

The Model Store.—When salesmen are trained at a central point, it is advisable to have a model store. This will serve two

purposes: It will give the salesmen a practical illustration of what is being taught them, and it will serve the company as a model for window trims, experiments of various kinds in selling, etc. The model store is virtually a laboratory for the entire chain. It tries out experiments and the result as shown in the model store determines whether they shall be adopted or rejected.

Figure 34 shows the floor plan of a model Winchester store. Contrary to the ordinary hardware store, there is nothing to obstruct the view, no rolling ladders along the wall, nothing cumbersome in the center of the store, and no goods suspended

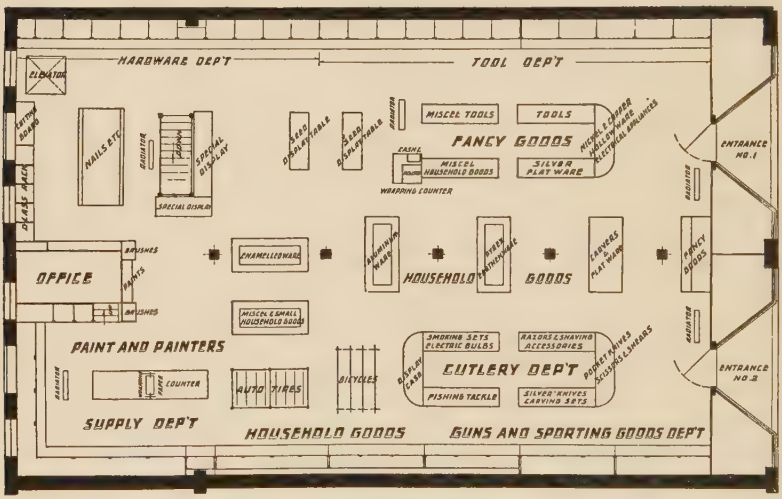


FIG. 34.—Floor plan of model Winchester store.

from the ceiling. Goods which display well, specialties, fancy goods, tools, cutlery, or sporting goods are in the front of the store, while more staple lines are in the back or in the basement. No stock is carried above the ledges along the side of the store.

Whether the clerk has to arrange displays in his own store or not, he must be taught at least an understanding of the value of display. The model store is dressed differently every week. Window displays are changed and counter displays of stock are altered. A complete rearrangement takes place to care for seasonal demand. Articles in the greatest demand are featured

in the windows, on the counters, by floor displays, by displays around pillars or columns in the center of the store, etc.

Consider, for example the experience of one chain, as reported by F. J. Arkins, staff secretary of the Alexander Hamilton Institute. He states that the work is carried on by professional window dressers, advertising men, experts in the matter of store and stock display. The final display is determined in a conference. All the week, perhaps, these men have been meeting the trade, discussing matters with patrons, and talking with customers regarding their wants. These men have also examined and analyzed the records of all of the branch stores for the corresponding period one year ago, two years back—and the averages over a period of perhaps ten and maybe twenty years, or as many years as the chain has been in business. The records give the results from different types of stores, regarding counter and window displays.

These men have before them photographs of all displays for the week under consideration.

Comments from branch managers and customers, complaints, etc. are taken up in conference. Each point is debated. There is certain to be a difference of opinion in the conferences. This is considered fortunate. In this case, it is believed that a decision, when finally made, will meet the objections of everyone present.

After the displays have been decided upon, the windows, the store interiors, and counter displays are photographed and copies of the photographs are sent to every branch manager, who puts up his new display according to the photographs. Thus all store links in the chain will show the same window display, counter display, and floor display at the same time and for the same number of days.

Now, assuming that the salesmen have had several lectures on the policy of the organization, its history, its ideals, etc., they are then taught practical retail salesmanship through the model store.

Knowledge of Product.—Chain salesmen should be given thorough instruction in the stock they handle, its uses and ingredients, the processes of manufacture, how and why goods are packed in certain ways, the origin of raw materials, and many

additional data. They must be ready to answer questions of any kind.

D. C. Keller, directing head of the Dow Drug Company of Cincinnati, relates some interesting experiences he had while investigating the knowledge of drug clerks regarding their products. The following is quoted from *Drug Store Merchandising* for October, 1921:

Mr. Keller went to a drug store in Chicago. He called for a box of sea salt—"bath salt," it is known to the trade. Mr. Keller knew what the particular brand of bath salt brought him by the clerk cost the druggist, and what a fair profit should be. He also knew the prices of certain other, equally popular, bath salts. "How much is this?" he asked the salesman.

The price was given.

"You haven't a cheaper grade of bath salt, have you?" he asked then, as a man who will leave without buying will do, unless he can buy for considerably less, when prices quoted appear high.

The clerk, who had tried to sell the high-priced product first, immediately produced a bath salt selling for much less.

"What's the difference between them?" Keller asked nonchalantly.

The clerk proceeded to expatiate on innate properties of salt derived from water drawn from one portion of the Atlantic ocean as compared with water from some other, taken from the same seaboard, some miles distant.

"But this higher-priced salt was made in Michigan," Keller interjected, reading the label.

The clerk examined the carton, flushed, and said the goods were given him to sell at the prices marked on them. A good salesman always tried to sell his highest-priced wares first. A modern drug store contains so infinitely many items that not even a Solomon could know all a man should know about the goods.

This story goes to show that a clerk may do more harm by ill-advised efforts to sell goods with false information than it would cost the chain to educate him. Mr. Keller, now, before every special sale in a Dow Drug Store, prepares a tabloid essay on the product. This contains information about the raw material,

how it is put together, the exceptional uses of the product, the differences between grades, how goods should be cared for by their buyers, etc.

To quote from Drug Store Merchandising:

One copy goes, by the firm's courier, to every Dow store, and must be receipted for by the manager in charge. It must be posted at once and every employee is responsible for its contents within a reasonable time—a few hours, that is—after posting. There can be no excuse for not having read a bulletin bearing the imprint of the president's office; instant dismissal is the reward of a proof of this charge!

This policy has proved highly successful in increasing sales. People who dropped in to look around went away with a purchase. They simply couldn't resist the selling argument. Following is a copy of the bulletin sent out on the subject of chamois:

THE PRESIDENT'S SALES PROMOTION BULLETIN NO. 11

CHAMOIS

To the Dow Sales Force:

As you already know, on the 16th inst. there will go on sale in our stores a big bargain in chamois. This is a special sacrifice price and we probably can't continue these prices after this lot is sold. Chamois will give better service and last longer if they are properly cared for. Water which is too hot, or extreme heat when drying, is injurious. Leaving the skin wet, without wringing it out, when not in use, is also destructive. Strong acids and impure strong soap should not be used on chamois. It is also better to have special chamois for rough, dirty work. After being used, chamois should always be washed thoroughly, in lukewarm, soapy water; using good soap. Then rinse in clear water, wringing the chamois as dry as possible, pulling it out as nearly as possible to its original shape and hanging it up to dry. Do not dry it on a radiator or other hot place. Do not let chamois lie around dirty for a considerable period, but wash as soon as possible after using. Chamois themselves will not scratch the finest of surfaces, but if they are allowed to accumulate dust, grit, and dirt they will not prove satisfactory, unless they are washed thoroughly before using.

All these points should be carefully explained to the customer as a matter of DOW SERVICE. Most of the customers in your store next week are possible purchasers and you should suggest chamois to each of them. These chamois have been retailing anywhere from $4 to $5, and if the customer already has a chamois don't fail to suggest the purchase of additional ones now as a matter of economy, because the price will be higher. Suggest the various household uses—cleaning pianos, furniture, windows, mirrors, interior woodwork, and polishing floors, bath tubs, wash stands, pictures,

lamps, sewing machines, and all such similar articles, and then, of course, their very general use for automobiles.

These chamois are absolutely "firsts," that is, perfect in every way. Many chamois sold are "seconds," and have in them thin places, hard spots, rough spots, and various blemishes. There is not a second in this lot. These chamois are not racked chamois. A racked chamois is one which has been wet in manufacture and then stretched and tacked to a board, or in other ways held in place until it is dry. It is then much larger, but when it is again wet and dried it will shrink back to its original size. A racked chamois can frequently be told by small tack holes around the edge. This is good selling talk.

D. C. KELLER,
President and General Mgr.

There are other ways, of course, of instructing the sales force as to the product, but this method has the advantage of novelty and, by concentrating sales effort on the article or product described, the clerk is able to see immediate results. Thus, his cooperation is secured. The majority of small chains have to educate their clerks after they are hired. In all chains there must be a constant driving effort to keep clerks up to the mark.

Training in the Right Arrangment of the Store.—The arrangement of branch stores is strictly in accordance with the arrangement of the model store. In fact, arrangement is perfected in the model store. The model allows for variations in stock, due to different localities and their varying tastes, etc. The manner in which the stocks may be alternated is shown. All the changes in stock will take place at one point, or, if at more than one point, the salesman is taught exactly where to look. The character and the nature of the article in those particular places indicate to him what has been dropped or changed in that store. Methods for adding new counters or tables to handle additional stock during heavy seasonal demands, as in the holidays, are shown.

Figure 35 shows the arrangement of stock in the Winchester model store. In this store every item carried in stock is shown in display. Goods are stocked behind the panel doors shown in the illustration.

A thorough knowledge of the arrangement of stock as plotted by the central office allows clerks to be shifted from one store to another in the same chain without the slightest confusion. It is another step in standardizing sales service.

Service.—Although the chain stores have largely cut out what had been known as service—credit, deliveries, returns, etc.—it is still in their power to render the most important help of all, and that is selling service. Display will sell goods, price will sell goods, but the services of the clerk are needed to make a complete

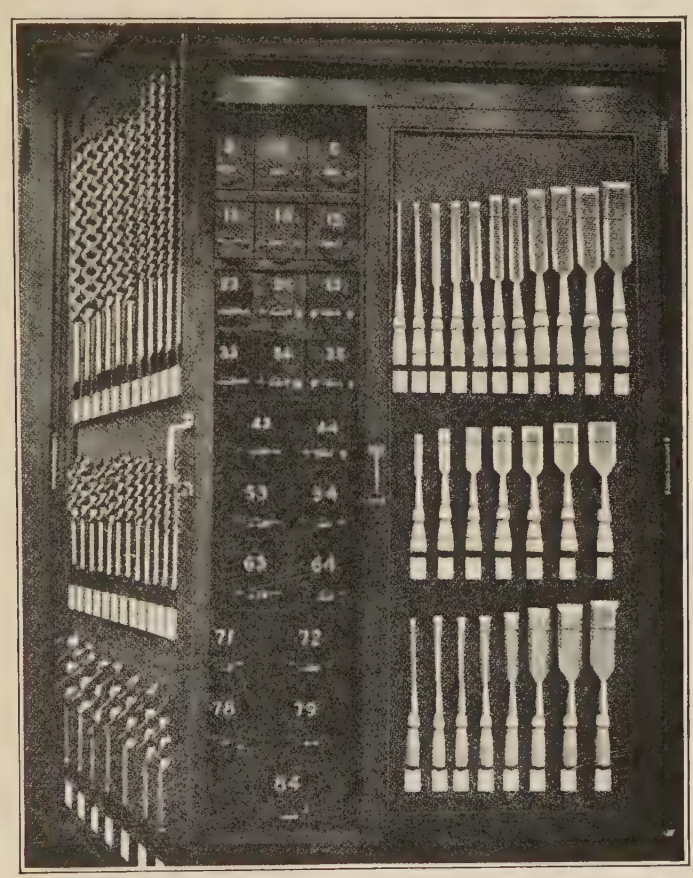


FIG. 35.—Section of display panel in Winchester store.

combination. The customer must be treated in such a way that he will come again. This is why the United Cigar Stores Company insists upon courtesy to the customer and why George J. Whelan says if he wrote a bible for salesmen, the first commandment would be "Thank You." Salesmen are given a specific order, reading as follows:

Thank You

Always acknowledge a purchase with a genuine "Thank you, Sir," or "Thank you, Madame," or some variations of the phrase, as, for example "Many thanks," or "Much obliged to you." Say whatever you say out loud as if you meant it. Under no circumstances must this rule be violated.

Then one day each clerk in the organization received a telegram reading: "Did you say 'thank you' to every customer you waited on today?" Some answer had to be made and replies flooded the central office. Mr. Whelan has chosen the "thank-you" phrase as the slogan of courtesy for the clerk.

In some chains clerks are told to remember the names of customers. All these, of course, are old tricks of salesmanship, but the chains have done more towards making a scientific study of retail selling than any other retail organization in the country, with the possible exception of some department stores.

Other chains dwell on the value of a smile when making a sale, others on an even, well-trained voice. But the point is that the chain organizations train their men to treat customers in such a way that they will become regular patrons.

Service may mean many things, but the chain store definition is service by the salesmen to the customers. For example, the following paragraphs show the idea of service which is taught by the Walgreen Company, which operates 36 candy and drug stores in Chicago and vicinity (quoted from *Drug Store Merchandising*):

1. Employees who are not polite to every customer have little chance of getting on whether in our employ or in the employ of someone else.
2. When the impossible is asked for—be pleasant, that is service.
3. Give each customer your whole attention.
4. Give as much attention to a little buyer as to a big one.
5. Always be circumspect.
6. When an article is not in stock, show a painstaking desire to get it for the customer.
7. Render this service with as much promptness and as little trouble to the customer as possible.
8. See that your floors are always clean—they mean reputation for the company.
9. Service is a matter of attitude as it is of action. You must bear in mind that service without wholeheartedness and simple kindness is useless.
10. Service is advertising that pays. Such advertising is in your power to create.

11. Your ability is judged by your power to cooperate. You progress by your capacity and willingness to cooperate.

12. Executives maintain their positions because they can cooperate with other executives and with their co-workers.

13. Make your cooperation wholehearted and real. It is more than obeying or giving orders. It means working with one's fellows in a spirit of helpfulness and good fellowship. It means avoiding the friction of inattention, deceit, selfishness, egotism. In other words, it means teamwork.

The chain store possesses one enormous advantage over its independent competitor. With the exception of five-and-ten-cent stores and other chains where the mere sales clerk has little or no opportunity for advancement, the chain clerk finds that his service to the customer actually pays him in cash. Where a man's own interest is concerned, there is ordinarily little difficulty in obtaining first-class service for the customer.

The Kresge Personal Efficiency Chart.—In order to obtain better-trained salespeople, and to arouse a desire for promotion in the personnel generally, the S. S. Kresge Company has devised a personal efficiency chart. The employees of the chain are asked to check themselves on a scale of 100 points, as follows (reported in *System*):

1. Dependable—10 points:

    1. Promptness.
    2. Regularity.
    3. Responsibility.

Ask yourself these questions: Am I dependable—that is, can I be depended upon to be prompt at my work and in all appointments? Can I be depended upon to be regularly at my work every day, or must substitutes be found frequently? When something is left to me to do, is it done? Am I responsible? If you can say "Yes, absolutely," to each one of these questions, you would check 10 points on dependable qualities.

2. Appearance—10 points:

    1. Neat.
    2. Attractive.
    3. Buoyant.

Am I neat? Is my hair kept well combed? Do I keep my clothing clean and well pressed? Do I appear attractive, or do I repel? Would I like to meet and talk with a person like myself? Am I buoyant in

my manner? That is, do I walk and take sufficient out-of-door exercise to keep me alert, vigorous, and healthy?

3. Manner—10 points:

1. Cheerful.
2. Patient.
3. Sympathetic.
4. Enthusiastic.
5. Courteous.

How does my manner impress others? Am I cheerful? Do I have patience when things go wrong? Am I sympathetic with those who are unfortunate? Am I enthusiastic over my work as well as my play? Am I courteous to my associates, my family, as well as to my customers, who indirectly pay my salary?

4. Industry—10 points:

Am I industrious? That is, do I apply myself to my work? When I have something to do, do I do it, thus accomplishing things as the days go by?

5. Loyalty—10 points:

1. Careful.
2. Faithful.
3. Honest.

Have I the qualities of loyalty? Am I careful with the things trusted to my care? In preventing breakage in the handling of merchandise? Am I faithful with the minutes and hours that belong to my company? Am I honest? Can the money of others be entrusted to my care? Do I ever speak untruths? Do I realize that to be loyal I must have all of these qualities?

6. Mental—10 points:

1. Tact.
2. Judgment.
3. Imagination.

What are my mental qualities? Am I tactful? Am I diplomatic, or do I rush into trouble? Do I exercise good judgment, or, when things are left to me, do I do the wrong thing? Have I imagination? Am I quick to picture a woman buying a clothes line as requiring new clothes pins and some hooks to fasten the line up with, which might result in a suggested sale?

7. Initiative—10 points:

Have I initiative? Have I the qualities that enable me to see things that need doing without being told? Do I make recommendations to those above me for the betterment of displays, or improvement in service?

8. Cooperation—10 points:

Do I cooperate with others? Am I pulling together for the good of all? Or must I work alone in my individual way? Am I willing to give up individual taste for the benefit of those at home? Do I realize that we are all dependent upon one another and therefore must pull together?

9. Knowledge of Merchandise—10 points:

1. How made.
2. Of what.
3. What used for.
4. By whom.
5. When and where.
6. Care of.

Have I knowledge of the merchandise in my department? Do I know every item in the department? Do I know how it is made? Do I know what it is made from? Can I tell what it is used for? Have I ever thought who requires or uses it? When and where do they need the articles I sell?

How should I take care of this merchandise while it is in my department? Do I ever look into an encyclopedia and other books and read about the merchandise I am selling?

10. Knowledge of Store—10 points.

1. Policies.
2. Department.
3. System.

After I have learned about my department, have I learned about the store as a whole? Have I tried to learn and understand its policies? Do I know all of the various departments? Have I studied and learned the system in use in each department?

Training by Correspondence.—The chief disadvantage of the correspondence method of training is the difficulty of sustaining interest at such long range. The J. C. Penney Company, however,

has been quite successful along these lines. To employees in each store is sent at frequent intervals a booklet containing two lessons in business training. These, according to the *Dry Goods Economist*, are calculated not only to lead to general efficiency, but to specialize its employees in the working principles of the Penney stores, so that executives for new stores may be taken from the ranks of old employees.

Each lesson is covered by a list of ten questions which pupils answer in writing and turn over to the store manager, who, in turn, sends them to the New York office. The store manager, with his personal interest in the business, is responsible for distributing the lessons and seeing that they are handed in and forwarded. Papers are marked and accompanied by a typewritten criticism. The course is entirely free of charge, even to women employees, who are debarred from further advancement by the rule of the company that only men may become store managers.

James L. Demoville, president of the National Drug Stores Corporation, employed merchandising experts to prepare a complete reading course in retail salesmanship. In many cases this was supplemented by individual instruction, given by visiting sales specialists. Books of questions and answers in regard to each class of drug store merchandise have been prepared.

Inspectors.—Unless the company devises some method of keeping track of the salesman's attitude towards the customer, the high standard which has been set by the educational department will be lowered. Sales bulletins and letters may help, but the only way of actually overseeing the attitude of the clerk is by personal observation. This is comparatively simple where the chain is a small one and the links closely connected. Different members of the organization may take turns inspecting retail service.

But with the larger chains it is necessary to employ inspectors who are unknown to the employees in the different stores. These inspectors ask innumerable questions before purchasing small articles. They may even try to annoy the salesman deliberately with a view to ascertaining his reaction.

It is frequently found that no endeavor to be insulting on the part of the inspector succeeds in ruffling the composure of the salesman. He neither loses his temper nor can he be tempted

into making a discourteous retort. He frequently sends the customer away in the best of humor.

It often develops in the course of these inspection trips that points are noted which prove important enough to be incorporated in the store manual. This, after all, is the most important part of the inspector's work. Although employees who do not reflect credit on the company's training are eliminated, the constructive selling ideas obtained are of great benefit. The functions of the inspectors are as follows:

1. They test the knowledge of the salesman in regard to his stock.
2. They find out whether he is tactful, polite, and considerate even under provocation.
3. They determine whether the salesman seeks to give real service to the patron.
4. They collect new selling ideas which may be applied with profit to the entire organization.

There are, of course, objections to this practice; but, in general, it makes for the store's efficiency.

The United Cigar Stores Company uses inspection for checking up the physical condition of the store. Three forms are used, according to John Blakely, assistant vice-president, writing in *System:*

1. Survey of front form. Spaces are provided for the following items:

(*a*) Reflector sign. Is it clean? Are all bulbs burning?
(*b*) Window lights. Are shades clean and all bulbs burning?
(*c*) Vestibule light. Is globe or reflector clean and lamp burning?
(*d*) Awning. Any rips, broken parts, or missing tapes?
(*e*) Window display. Is it well trimmed? Are windows clean? Is the window display well adapted to the location?

2. Survey of store front form. This covers such items as the cleanliness of the floor, the showcases and mirrors, the counter display racks—such as gum jars and candy cases, pipe display cases, and other articles peculiar to the nature of the store's business.

3. Review of store form. Space is provided to indicate condition of all display cases and stock contained in them as to whether it is properly dated and priced and its general condition as to salability.

The Saleswoman.—Far less has been done in training women in salesmanship, principally because, as mentioned before, the chain's efforts have been directed towards educating men for store managers and higher positions. But there are signs that executives are beginning to realize the advantages to be gained by training the salesgirl. The following is taken from a notice to managers:

> Do you realize that the point of contact with the buying public is through your salesgirl? At first thought, some of your managers may be inclined to disagree on this point. A few may think that we are trespassing on their ground. But consider this: A manager's time must necessarily be divided over a great many duties. This does not leave him free to spend his entire time behind the counter. Therefore, he must rely, to a very considerable extent, upon the cooperation and loyalty of his salesgirls.
>
> Are you managers just paying the salesgirl her weekly wage and dismissing all further responsibility towards her? Or are you giving her a little insight into your business? Have you convinced her that yours is a Quality store and that she has every reason to be proud of standing behind your counters and selling Quality goods? Have you made her feel that she has a responsibility in the successful operation of your store?

The New York Department of Labor found in one of the smallest up-state stores a system which used an "efficiency rating card" for giving sales stimulus to the girls. The manager, who was new and young, gave the girl with the highest rating every week a bonus. Rating was apportioned as follows: 10 per cent for discipline, tidiness, etc.; 10 per cent for general appearance of counters and shelves; 5 per cent for having counters and shelves filled; 5 per cent for having paper and cord on hand; 15 per cent for having merchandise displayed for selling merits; 15 per cent for having the undercounters clean and in order; 15 per cent for having the price signs in the right places; 10 per cent for remembering to register money before wrapping; 10 per cent for care in reducing shrinkage; and 5 per cent for politeness to customers. The small allowance for politeness is significant as showing the attitude of the five-and-ten-cent store towards the actual manner of making sales.

For a store which, like the five-and-ten-cent store, must keep expenses down to the minimum, such a system offers an induce-

ment to the girls for good service and at the same time does not appreciably increase wage expenses. One five-and-ten-cent-store chain has a special training force of six women who are constantly on the road opening new stores, selecting employees, and adjusting grievances in stores already opened. Another chain endeavored to encourage local managers to start classes among the salesgirls for training in salesmanship.

Conclusions.—As a conclusion to this chapter, one of the general letters sent out by this chain for these training classes shows the type of educational matter best fitted for the salesgirl.

GENERAL LETTER

TRAINING OF SALES FORCE

The following article is copied from a current magazine:

A CAUSE AND A CURE

Desiring to learn the reason why certain retail customers had discontinued buying goods from them, a large department store made an investigation among 197 households, as a result of which they compiled the following statistics. Here is what the customers gave as their reasons:

1.	Indifference of salespeople	47
2.	Attempts at substitution	24
3.	Errors	18
4.	Tricky methods	16
5.	Slow deliveries	17
6.	Overinsistence of salespeople	16
7.	Insolence of salespeople	16
8.	Unnecessary delays in service	13
9.	Tactless business policies	11
10.	Bad arrangement of store	9
11.	Ignorance concerning goods	6
12.	Refusal to exchange goods	4
	Total	197

The fact which is most forcibly brought out in these statistics is the large percentage of reasons given for which the clerks or salespeople were directly responsible. These are the ones numbered 1, 2, 6, 7, and 11 in the table shown.

Here are 109, at least, out of the 197 households interviewed, or a little over 55 per cent, who gave such reasons as indifference, insolence, ignor-

ance, and overinsistence on the part of the salespeople as the cause of the discontinuance of their patronage.

When it comes down to a final analysis of the situation, the clerks were not so much to blame as the store management . . .

In this connection, we cannot overemphasize the importance of the saleswoman's position in your store, as the connecting link between the management and the customer.

The advantage of training men for promotion has been amply proved by experience. The advantage of training salesmen and salesgirls in standardized chain methods of service and salesmanship is becoming more and more apparent. It cannot help succeeding because it is economically profitable to all parties concerned.

1. The chain obtains a larger volume of sales.
2. The clerks obtain a larger bonus and more rapid promotion.

As a general thing, the better the training the clerks receive, the better type of personnel secured, the greater the profits that accrue, and the better the wages that can be paid.

CHAPTER XIV

MAINTAINING MORALE

Outline

Methods of obtaining morale:
1. Conferences.
2. Bulletins and letters.
3. Contests.
4. Rewards and special bonuses.
5. Organization magazine.

Conferences:
1. Strictly business:
   (*a*) Held at regular periods:
      (1) Meeting of managers.
      (2) Meeting of district heads
      (3) Meeting of store force.
2. Partly business:
   (*a*) Annual conventions.
   (*b*) Dinners.
3. Results:
   (*a*) Confidence in organization.
   (*b*) Spirit of good fellowship among personnel.

Bulletins and letters:
1. Should combine:
   (*a*) Instruction.
   (*b*) Stimulus.
   (*c*) Praise or blame.

Contests:
1. Components of good contest:
   (*a*) To stimulate interest.
   (*b*) Bring the winner:
      (1) Notoriety.
      (2) Cash.
      (3) Both.

Rewards:
1. Recognition of:
   (*a*) Unusual service.
   (*b*) Unusual merit.
   (*c*) Long service.

House magazine:

1. Published in interest of personnel.
2. Maintains contact:
   (*a*) Between various links in organization.
   (*b*) By personal bits of information.
   (*c*) By photographs.
3. Makes known the policy of the company:
   (*a*) Articles by executives published.
4. Policy of magazine must be in accord with policy of organization.

Results of morale:

1. Discipline:
   (*a*) Importance of rules:
      (1) Each store representative of the whole organization.
   (*b*) Necessity of making clerks see it is for their own good to maintain discipline.
2. Teamwork:
   (*a*) Feeling of goodwill among employees:
      (1) Towards company.
      (2) Towards each other.
3. Increased profits:
   (*a*) For company.
   (*b*) For individual members of personnel.

CHAPTER XIV

MAINTAINING MORALE

The morale of an organization may be called its mental state. This mental state is not stationary, but is constantly fluctuating in response to the many influences brought to bear from all sides on the company and its employees. The company which maintains the morale of its organization at a high pitch is usually successful financially, because an upward trend in morale is directly reflected in profits. R. S. Woodworth says, in his book on "Psychology":

> Good morale means more than willingness for duty; it means "pep" or positive zest for action. Where the master is able, in the first place, to show the servant the objective need and the value of the goal, and to leave the initiative in respect to ways and means to the servant, looking to him for results, the servant often responds by throwing himself into the enterprise as if it were his own—as, indeed, it properly is in such a case.

The aim of all methods of personnel administration is to maintain this morale, and, where it did not previously exist, to build it up. Maintaining morale for the chain store organization is especially important because of the geographical distances separating the various links and the consequent impossibility of individual supervision of the personnel. Therefore, this feeling of interest in the company and its activities which is called morale must be kept up by other means.

In a factory, morale is a factor in production; in the chain store organization, it is a factor in selling. To obtain maximum results, it is necessary to analyze morale and ascertain by what means it can best be secured.

The Elements of Morale.—There are five points to be considered ordinarily by the chain management in its efforts to improve and maintain its morale.

1. The company must inspire the employee with confidence in it, in its officers, and in its policies. This is a necessary requisite for morale, since there can be no discipline and teamwork where there is no confidence.

2. The company must give its employees some financial interest in the business as a reward for efficient service.

3. The employee must feel he is working towards a definite goal. Through his own experience and by observing others he must realize that promotion is won mainly by his own efforts. He should be shown how he is progressing from week to week and from month to month.

4. The element of competition should be present. The clerk in the store should be able to compare his achievements with those of clerks in other stores. Furthermore, some degree of responsibility should be thrown upon his shoulders.

5. The company should try to make its employees feel that they are members of one family. That is, it must make them acquainted with each other and with the company. The employee should feel that what touches the company's welfare touches his as well.

No organization can score 100 per cent on the question of morale, but it is possible to maintain morale at a high level. It is generally accomplished by the use of some or all of the methods discussed in the rest of this chapter. Which particular methods are used depends a great deal on the size of the chain and on the size of the units in the chain. The question of morale in a five-and-ten-cent store organization has two aspects: first, the morale of the store employees in relation to the store, and, second, the morale of the store manager in relation to the whole organization. The small chain can do without, and, in fact, from motives of economic operation, must do without such methods of maintaining morale as the house organ. In the very small chain morale is enforced and maintained by daily personal visits of the executive. It is also possible for the various store managers to hold frequent conferences. But, although methods differ, the purpose remains the same, namely, to secure the cooperation of the employee in the activities of the company.

Methods of Creating Morale.—There are five ordinary methods of securing proper morale:

1. Conferences.
2. Daily letters and bulletins.
3. Contests.
4. Rewards and special bonuses.
5. A house organ.

The first two methods will make the employees interested in their work and confident in their own future as well as that of the company. Contests introduce the element of competition. Rewards and bonuses give that financial stimulus which chain organizations have found essential, and the house organ endeavors to create the family spirit, to acquaint the employees with the policies of the company, and to furnish a medium of publicity.

Conferences.—Conferences, of one kind and another, are essential. In all chains they should form part of the routine. There are several types of conferences: strictly business meetings, confined mainly to executives and store managers, and meetings which aim to introduce the element of good fellowship, such as dinners and conventions.

Some chains have an annual convention which all managers attend who can possibly do so. Policies and plans for the coming year are outlined and explained. The various local men have an opportunity to get away from the somewhat narrowing precincts of their own stores and to obtain a broader view of the organization in its entirety.

Conferences during the year are often held at stated intervals. Where chains are limited in geographical extent, all managers can usually attend. Where chains are more extended, district conferences may be held, and the problems brought up at that time discussed a second time in a conference of district managers. Conferences may take the form of dinners when it is believed the more informal atmosphere will lead to better results.

Where the personnel of a single store is fairly large, as in a department store or a five-and-ten-cent store, conferences and meetings should be held frequently. As mentioned previously,

these conferences may be made the occasion of instructing salesmen and salesgirls in better methods of salesmanship.

Some chains have adopted a policy of giving outings to which all employees are invited. Such a policy increases the feeling of goodwill.

Special conferences may be held when the percentage of a certain member store shows a marked falling off. The entire staff may be called in to go over the specific problems of the particular store. This avoids any unjust action. Reprimands often do more harm than good, especially as investigation frequently shows that bad conditions are due to external circumstances which are not apparent at first glance.

Bulletins and Letters.—Keeping up morale is a ceaseless task. Good advice and good intentions are lost sight of unless in some way brought to mind. The store manager appreciates help of this nature. He is constantly reminded of what he already knows but is in danger of forgetting in the stress of the day's work and the monotony of his routine.

Perhaps these bulletins give pointers and tips as to selling goods. Perhaps there is a list of averages in which he can find the position of his own store. A mere list of changes in the price of products to be sold usually forms a part of the bulletin, and, although a necessary part, still it is just as necessary to keep in mind the question of the store manager's morale.

In writing these bulletins there is danger, on the one hand, of becoming too prosy and on the other, to use the vernacular, too "peppy." There is a half-way point, as is well shown by the following extract on the subject of window trims. See how cleverly instruction, stimulus, and praise are mingled:

> Which one of the five senses produces the most dollars?
>
> Is it the sense of sight—or the sense of hearing—or the sense of smell—or the sense of taste—or the sense of touch?
>
> A recent investigation was made to determine through which one of the five senses sales were really made. The results were astounding: 87 per cent of the people bought the things they saw (in the windows, on the counters, in the showcases, etc.); 7 per cent bought as a result of hearing; 3½ per cent through the sense of smell; 1½ per cent through the sense of touch; 1 per cent through the sense of taste.

Think of it!—87 per cent of the people buy by sight. Doesn't that drive home the importance of attractive window displays? Doesn't that make you stop and wonder whether your displays are as attractive as they can possibly be? Doesn't that make you realize that the time and the effort you put forth to trim your windows are worth everything to you?

Maybe you are smiling as you read this. Perhaps you are saying to yourself that it is old stuff. Yet, we wonder how your windows look at eight in the morning. We wonder whether they are bare or there! We wonder if you are saying that you can't trim your windows early because your stuff isn't out of the oven yet. We wonder if you feel that it isn't worth the effort to trim windows before noon because nobody passes your store before 10 a.m.—and as we wonder, we keep on producing display ideas and showcards just because we know that our progressive managers are everlastingly looking for new stuff—new thoughts —new displays—anything and everything that will help them to make their windows more attractive.

We know that the live Federal managers have a window trim of some sort at 8 a.m., even if it is just a few cards placed in the window—anything to give the appearance that they are still in business—anything to attract the attention of the average person who passes the store from eight until noon.

And, as you read this message, do you wonder why the stores that always have attractive windows usually do the most business?

Has this straight-from-the-shoulder message convinced you that, of the five senses, the sense of sight can produce more dollars than all the others? We wonder!

Note that the above article first proves the value of window displays in making sales, then applies it to the particular problems of the Federal System of Bakeries, and finally brings the matter down to the store manager himself, telling him how to use this bulletin to increase his sales. It is well written and neither too dignified nor too familiar. Such bulletins as this prove helpful in the maintenance of morale.

Contests.—Nothing is better for the morale of the organization than a good contest with some worth-while prizes for the winner. Everybody is on his or her tiptoes, and sales are bound to pick up. From the chain's point of view it is like the man who advertised he would give $5 for the best bushel of potatoes he received by a certain date, and in a few days had received more than a hundred bushels of prize potatoes. The chain pays a

small amount to the winner and receives in return the united efforts of the sales personnel. A definite goal is in view and each member has an opportunity to show what he or she can do.

The most common plan is to give cash prizes to stores making the most sales, to be divided among employees of those stores. The contest may stipulate either that the store which makes the most sales wins, or that the store which shows the greatest improvement in sales over the previous month wins.

The Federal System of Bakeries has evolved a rather novel contest idea. The contest is treated as a horse race, each store serving as a horse and each manager as a jockey. The races are divided into various events. There are national races and, in addition, there are interdistrict races. For example, in July, 1921, a purse of $300 was divided with three prizes for each of the six districts in the country.

The results are reproduced from the *Federal Sunlight Magazine* with details of the contest in the first district.

SUMMARY OF JULY INTERDISTRICT RACES

A total purse of $300, divided six ways to cover the six events which constituted the July Interdistrict Races, was awarded as follows:

First Race—The Knickerbocker Special

First:	Little Falls, N. Y.	$25.00
Second:	Stamford, Conn.	15.00
Third:	Amsterdam, N. Y.	10.00

Second Race—The Keystone Handicap

First:	Elizabeth, N. J.	$25.00
Second:	Meadville, Pa.	15.00
Third:	Duquesne, Pa.	10.00

Third Race—The Southern Sweepstakes

First:	Valdosta, Ga.	$25.00
Second:	Brunswick, Ga.	15.00
Third:	Jacksonville, Fla., No. 1	10.00

Fourth Race—Great Lakes Special

First:	Rock Island, Ill., No. 3	$25.00
Second:	Wabash, Ind.	15.00
Third:	Belleville, Ill.	10.00

Fifth Race—Mississippi River Suburban

First:	Davenport, Iowa, No. 2	$25.00
Second:	Knoxville, Tenn., No. 1	15.00
Third:	Springfield, Mo., No. 1	10.00

Sixth Race—Great Western Derby

First:	Bartlesville, Okla.	$25.00
Second:	Long Beach, Cal.	15.00
Third:	Okmulgee, Okla.	10.00

Reports of how races were run. (Note: Names of jockeys have been changed in some instances, but official rewards for July are as given.)

First Race

Horses	Jockeys	Position at finish	Percentage of increase in retail sales for July over June
Little Falls, N. Y.	E. J. Andrews	1	24.0
Stamford, Conn.	Mrs. Mabel Carrow	2	17.4
Amsterdam, N. Y.	J. A. Schmidt	3	16.7
Norwalk, Conn.	G. N. Carrow	4	14.6
Albany, N. Y.	Mary Murphy	5	12.7
Freeport, L. I., N. Y.	Lela Hatch	6	11.5
Lynn, Mass.	John Riley	7	11.0
Rome, N. Y.	Mrs. Lee O'Brien	8	10.3
Hempstead, N. Y.	Frank H. Baker	9	9.1
Bridgeport, Conn.	Frank Oberg	10	7.8
Boston, Mass., No. 4—Dock Square	K. O'Hara	11	7.6
Mt. Vernon, N. Y.	W. R. Anderson	12	7.4
Binghamton, N. Y.	Mrs. Chris Bleichert	13	7.2
Rochester, N. Y.	Albert H. Royer	14	6.5
Peekskill, N. Y.	Mrs. R. Payne	15	5.4
Jamaica, N. Y.	A. F. Schneider	16	3.9
Yonkers, N. Y.	H. J. Konecny	17	3.0
Boston, Mass., No. 5—Massachusetts Ave.	A. M. Hobart	18	0.6

Also ran in order named: Boston, Mass., No. 3, Canal St.; Boston, Mass., No. 1, Federal St.; White Plains, N. Y.; Flushing, N. Y.; Boston, Mass., No. 2, Tremont St.; Elmira, N. Y.; Holyoke, Mass.; Brooklyn, N. Y.; Syracuse, N. Y.; Northampton, Mass.; Westfield, Mass.; Buffalo, N. Y.; New York City, No. 4.

Remarks: Little Falls turned in a remarkable performance and led all the way. Stamford, the favorite, could not get up. Amsterdam, who finished third, ran a pretty race. Bridgeport and Albany were raced into submission by Norwalk. The others never had a chance. Winner trained by T. J. Madden.

A contest, to be successful, must stimulate enough interest to bring the winner either money, notoriety, or both. The more publicity given to these contests, the better success they have. If no house organ is published, bulletins should be sent out. If the contest extends over a long period, bulletins should be issued giving the status of the contestants.

Rewards.—Rewards are closely allied with contests, the difference being that in the latter case there is open competition, and in the former the result is, as a rule, unsolicited. For example, when an employee of the Whelan organization performed any service which brought him to the attention of the main office, Mr. Whelan would write him a personal letter of commendation and thanks. Inasmuch as contests and rewards must have publicity in order to be effectual, the letter was mailed in a flaring red envelope, so that everyone in the office or store could not help knowing it had been received and the nature of its contents. To make matters doubly certain, the reward was announced in the monthly bulletin.

Most chains give Christmas presents, at which time special merit may be rewarded. Frequently, the basis of the amount of a Christmas present is the length of service, thus placing a premium on steady employment.

All bonuses are in the nature of a reward for work and attention above the average, but reward in the sense of being limited to recognition of acts on the part of the employees beyond the mere duty of routine selling and managing. Recognizing such acts is an excellent method of acquiring the goodwill of the employees.

The House Organ.—House organs published by chain organizations are employee publications, or internal house organs. They are published solely in the interests of the personnel. A house organ is one of the methods of maintaining morale where personal contact is lacking. It reproduces the results of contests, gives personal news about the various employees, and their views on different company matters. It is not only a clearing house for gossip but should also contain certain "inspired" articles from the central office.

Robert E. Ramsay has made an excellent summary of the vital points to be kept under constant consideration in editing a house organ of this nature:

1. Analysis of the policy.
2. Purpose:
   (*a*) Sales.
   (*b*) Goodwill.
   (*c*) Educational.
3. The editor.
4. The name—a freak or unusual name will not wear well and may lead to discontinuance.
5. A subtitle which makes clear the plan and purpose of the publication.
6. Size and analysis of the field to be reached.
7. Frequency of issue—very important and must be lived up to.
8. Cover design:
   (*a*) Permanent.
   (*b*) Changed each issue.
9. Style of appeal:
   (*a*) Language.
   (*b*) Personality.
   (*c*) Atmosphere.

It is also necessary to make a budget of expenses of publication. Owing to the constant circulation, this should not be difficult. All material is either "inspired" from headquarters, prepared by the editor, or got from the branches and their personnel. There is no difficulty in obtaining material, due to the universal desire to appear in print.

In editing the house organ it is important that the policy of the house and the policy of the publication agree—the two must be identical. It should also be remembered that the average person objects to "ginger" and "pep" literature. He would much prefer a simple, lucid explanation of the facts and how they apply to him. All sermonizing and moralizing should be done carefully. A busy salesman has no time to read sermons. But he will read articles about his business, about himself, and about the other members of the personnel, because he is interested.

House organs are ordinarily illustrated with photographs of members of the personnel, their stores, and other items of interest. The *Federal Sunlight Magazine* has the back cover so made that it can be cut out and used for a window paster.

The editor of the magazine should be in the closest touch with the controlling head of the business, who often looks over the

proof before printing. The editor himself, according to Mr. Ramsay, must be author, feature writer, advertising man, investigator, salesman, preacher without seeming to preach, teacher without seeming to teach, reporter, proofreader, and planner.

To conclude, the editor of the *Acme Special*, Fred. B. Barton, says:

> We try to have this paper hold the Acme family together in a unit, to keep up the family feeling, even though Bill Jones at Acme 6 may only see Tom Smith at Acme 56 once a year. Also we mix in a little educational and inspirational matter now and then. We believe that the paper has some effect in making men satisfied with their jobs and encouraging them to grow into better positions and to look ahead to a real future with our company.

Enforcing Morale and Results.—There are two methods of checking up the morale of a chain organization. The first is to employ a corps of inspectors who will personally see that the policies and the plans of the central office are carried out. The second is to allow the personnel to evolve its own morale under the inspiration and educational leadership of the head office. By the second method the responsibility is, as far as possible, shifted from the chain to the employees.

But, however spontaneous the maintenance of morale may become, the central office of the chain must exercise some supervision. In large organizations this can be done only through a special department, which will be in part the personnel department, although it may go under a variety of names. In smaller chains, this supervision must be exercised by some other department, probably the sales department.

Good morale manifests itself in the three following ways:

1. Effective discipline, cheerfully submitted to.
2. Spirit of cooperation.
3. Increased profits to personnel and company.

The first two are necessary to produce the last. Other things being equal, if the first two can be secured, the last will follow as a natural corollary.

Discipline.—What does discipline mean to a chain organization? It does not necessarily mean that the assistant must say

"Mister" when addressing the manager, as one chain vainly attempts to enforce. It is something much broader and more important. In a way, every branch store in the chain and every clerk in the store is representative of every other store and clerk in the chain. If one manager allows his store to become dirty and remain so, the trouble is not confined to his store or to him alone, but all the other stores doing business under the same name suffer also. Thus, discipline in a chain organization means the uniform observance of policies laid down by the central office as wise and proper.

If it is decided that stores should open at eight o'clock, there should be no exceptions without excellent reason. It is easy to see that a customer who is used to buying from one store in the chain which opens at eight o'clock would not be pleased on going to another store in the same chain to find that it opens at nine. If a clerk in one store of the chain sends away a disgruntled customer, that customer will hesitate to go to another store in the chain, no matter how amiable its clerks may be.

A high morale enforces discipline because the clerks can be brought to see that discipline must be enforced for the good of everyone concerned. Rules and regulations become but printed words without effect unless there is some method of enforcing them. The best method yet found lies in the interest of the employee to obey them without constant inspection. The methods of building up morale, previously described, should have, therefore, as one of their first effects, the maintenance of discipline.

Teamwork.—Teamwork is an essential part of chain store organization, especially since the organization must of necessity be so loosely joined. Therefore, another beneficial result of maintaining a high morale is a spirit of cooperation, not possible to define in so many words, but possible to understand. A chain of stores is a sensitive mechanism and only the most careful attention to routine makes it possible for it to function well and efficiently. Thus, cooperation between all links of the personnel is a fundamental requisite.

A chain which does not possess the goodwill of its employees may be counted a failure. No matter how methodical and machine-like its methods of supervision, it cannot substitute

methods for men. A chain store organization must build up a structure of personalities, not one of mere store fronts.

A high morale creates interest in the work because it points out where the employee may better himself and get in line for rapid promotion. The best system of morale is one which points out where the individual himself can benefit. The fundamental idea is to work together for the benefit of each one.

Conclusions.—The question of morale lies between the employer and the worker. Although it is to the ultimate benefit of both parties, the incentive and the control must be furnished by the management. The employee must in a variety of ways be made to feel:

1. That the enterprise is his.
2. That he is fairly treated.
3. That he has a just share in the proceeds.
4. That he has a genuine interest in the purpose of the concern.
5. That he is interested in the work itself.

The composite effect will show itself in an excellent *esprit de corps*. This morale, in turn, will cause greater sales effort, as well as better coordinated sales effort. In fact, for the loosely jointed chain organization, the practical alternatives are between creating and maintaining good morale and suffering under the hardship of the indifference and even hostility of the employees.

CHAPTER XV

THE STORE MANAGER

Outline

Requisites:
1. Personal:
   (*a*) Interest in work.
   (*b*) Oblivious of long hours.
   (*c*) Courtesy.
   (*d*) Honesty.
2. Managerial:
   (*a*) Sales personality.
   (*b*) Ability to handle subordinates.
   (*c*) Judgment.

Duties:
1. Clerical:
   (*a*) Make daily reports:
      (1) Sales report.
      (2) Merchandise requirements.
      (3) Expenses.
      (4) Miscellaneous.
2. Financial:
   (*a*) Responsible for receipts.
   (*b*) Responsible for stock.
3. Moral:
   (*a*) Make store connecting link between corporation and customer.
4. Managerial:
   (*a*) Store neat and clean.
   (*b*) Stock properly arranged and tagged.
   (*c*) Service to customers.

Authority governed by:
1. Policy of company.
2. Size of chain and degree of personal supervision.
3. Size of store:
   (*a*) Large store manager's considerable authority:
      (1) Refund money.
      (2) Cut prices.
      (3) Make purchases.
      (4) Employ help.
      (5) Arrange stock.
      (6) Etc.
   (*b*) Small store's small authority:
      (1) Close supervision.

CHAPTER XV

THE STORE MANAGER

No man succeeds in what he does unless he is interested in it. Few men are satisfied unless they can increase their monetary compensation as a result of their own efforts. The ordinary man prefers to work for himself rather than to work for others. There is much disagreement among chain organizations as to just what the final secret of success in chain management is, but the consensus of opinion on the greatest weakness of the chain is unanimous. The chain is strong in proportion as it holds the undivided and whole-hearted allegiance of its store managers. If a branch store is to compete successfully with independent stores, the man in charge of that branch must feel he is able to earn as large an amount of money as the owner of the independent store next door.

All chains recognize that some inducement must be held out to the store manager. He must be given a bonus, a commission on sales, or encouraged by some other expedient into devoting himself completely to the interests of the chain. In return for his services as evidenced by increased sales, more rapid turnover, etc., the manager receives a larger return, a more profitable store to manage, perhaps advancement into the central organization. In other words, the chain organization must keep the road to promotion wide open. Any stoppage along the route means stagnation. The progress of the store manager is unmistakably evident to the executive at headquarters by the figures as to that store.

Choosing the Manager.—What kind of man is needed by the chain in order to train him into a capable and efficient store manager? Mr. Woolworth said: "I prefer the boy from the farm to the college man. The college man won't start at the bottom and learn the business." This may be a prejudiced view, but it was the opinion of one of the great chain store

pioneers. And every man in the Woolworth organization must at some time have served behind the counter. For every position there are two understudies, and each place is won by merit. It is a rule never to go outside the organization for a manager or higher position.

When the Penney organization wants men, the following advertisement appears in local papers:

Men wanted. Well-established mercantile concern, operating 313 retail stores, offers:

1. Long and continuous hours of work.
2. The work itself, hard, ceaseless, trying, testing.
3. The work drive unrelenting, day in and day out.
4. And for it, a small living salary, perhaps less than you are getting now.

Mr. Penney says:

I have generally found the young man coming from the small towns of the Middle West making the best all-round men. They have not been spoiled by big cities and they know how to live within their income.

The men in our organization must not drink, gamble, or smoke cigarettes. We like to get college men.

A man is started as a salesman behind the counter. We learn to know him and he learns to know us. If he makes good, time will come when he is put in charge of a store, usually an offshoot of the one where he has been working. The next time he changes, he gets an interest in his first store. If he doesn't have money, we lend it to him. If he is a big success in that store, he can then start other stores.

These statements are enough to show what two authorities think. President Wattley of the National Drug Stores believes in young men, constructively trained, carefully watched, properly placed, and backed by the corporation. He himself had formerly picked the managers for the Liggett stores. His requirements for a manager are that he should have a pleasant personality, ready courtesy, and be strong in discipline—a man who can enforce his discipline with a smile, is, according to him, the one who makes the 100 per cent success.

Briefly, chains acquire new employees

1. By offering inducements to men already established in other chains.

2. By taking in men who have already had retail experience in other lines.

3. By training forces of their own.

By such means the chains have, as a general rule, succeeded in acquiring sales and managerial forces far above the ordinary retail average.

The third method is the one usually employed by the large chains and, as far as possible, by the smaller organizations. If a chain expands faster than the personnel can be adequately trained, then men must be sought outside, but it may prove as dangerous to expand without adequate and capable personnel as without sufficient financial reserves.

The first method is sometimes used, but the user runs great risk of incurring the ill will of the chain from which the men have been taken.

The smaller chain can maintain personal contact with the store managers, while the larger chains must rely on methods. Therefore, the large chain must exercise double care in putting its trust in a man who controls stock amounting to thousands of dollars.

The Duties of a Store Manager.—The duties of a branch manager vary according to the size of the chain, the policy of the organization in delegating authority, and the individual capability of the man in charge of the store. A good manager will always find things to do outside the strict interpretation of his duties as outlined by the central management.

A store manager will, in all cases, have to make daily reports, he will have to see that cash taken in is banked, he will be required to keep the appearance of his store as neat, clean, and attractive as possible. He may have the responsibility of hiring the clerks. He may or may not settle for overhead expenses.

The efficient store manager knows that, in the last analysis, his success in that position which he holds lies in the hands of the purchasing public, and that the way to attract the public is to give them service. A chain store, of course, can give service in many ways, in addition to delivering goods and extending credit. A low price is a form of service, a well-arranged and complete stock is another form of service, and courtesy to the customer is still another form. And at this point it

might be mentioned that the effect of the manager's personality is a form of service.

Authority.—The direct control which the manager has over his store is delegated to him by the central organization as its agent. Thus the first great point in delimiting the authority of the branch manager is the policy of the company in this respect.

1. *Company Policy.*—Some chain systems regard a store manager as merely a clerk over whom supervision must be exercised by other means than direct personal control. He may not be allowed to hire clerks, to make any purchases, or to withdraw any money from receipts for contingent expenses. There is no standard policy as to branch managers.

2. *The Size of the Chain.*—Generally speaking, the smaller the chain the smaller the responsibility of the store manager. Thus, if the chain system were confined to a single town, the manager would probably not be allowed to make any purchases. All goods would come to him direct from the main warehouse. If a package were broken, he would have to keep the actual package for the inspection of the management, or else be charged with the retail price of this package. He would train no help, as the central organization would do this. This policy is not confined to small chains, however, since the United Cigar Stores train salesmen themselves and then distribute them to member stores.

Where a number of branch stores are close together under the constant supervision of a district manager, their authority will be less than where the units are broadly scattered. In the latter case, the manager may be almost autonomous.

3. *The Type of Product.*—The manager of a store containing large floor space and varied stock necessarily must have broader authority. He has more men and women working under him. His volume of sales is larger, his stock of goods is more valuable. He receives a larger salary. For example, the manager of a branch dry goods store may have to have a large amount of authority. He may be authorized to refund money, make exchanges, cut prices to meet competition, increase advertising appropriations, employ extra sales help, sell loss leaders, divide departments to suit himself, employ and discharge help, raise and lower wages, purchase goods, veto price recommendations

made by the home office, and select the goods he wishes to sell from samples submitted by the purchasing department. In this case, it is the manager who must meet the competition by adapting his policies to meet local conditions.

In a grocery store, the other extreme exists. Often many of these stores belong to one organization in a community. The store manager has no authority as to what he shall sell or the price at which he shall sell. The manager is there to see that instructions from the warehouse or buyer as to prices and goods to be sold are carried out. The goods from the warehouse are invoiced to him at retail prices and he must sell his quota.

The manager of a shoe store carrying a branded, advertised line might be required to conduct his store according to strict rules laid down by the home office as to prices and advertising, but he has latitude in his choice of styles to sell and his method of selling them.

As to the authority of a manager in a five-and-ten-cent store, it is said that the manager of each local store is responsible to his district office, which, in turn, is under the central office, and from that office originate all important orders. The manager has little to say regarding the policies under which the store to which he is sent is to operate. He is transferred by the central office from one store to another, from one city to another, as his supervisor thinks best. As one manager put it: "If it isn't a promotion it's a demotion, and it's not up to you to fuss about it."

From what has been said, it is easy to see that no set rules can be laid down for limiting or extending the authority of the branch manager. In each case, it will be dictated by the policy of the controlling body as modified by circumstances.

Moral Responsibilities.—The majority of chain systems have been able to create an *esprit de corps* which goes a long way towards offsetting the disadvantages experienced in finding and training branch managers. Such a spirit must exist if the chain is to expand and be successful. This feeling is obtained partly, of course, by arranging a scale of remuneration to fit the ambition of the type of man desired, but money alone would never be sufficient. There must be this sense of moral responsibility which the branch manager has for his store.

The manager becomes a part of the system, on the one hand, and a part of the community in which the store is located, on the other. He is the connecting link between the impersonal chain and the customers. He wishes the chain to appear well in the eyes of the public, as judged through his store. Therefore, he keeps it neat and clean, and forgets to note the overtime he spends in making it attractive. He has a feeling of pride in the store and something akin to a feeling of ownership. The chains which make the yoke of the necessary accounting routine weigh as lightly as possible, and place the largest premium on the individuality of the store manager, have little difficulty in securing the loyalty of this branch of the personnel. The man who is working for himself pays little heed to hours or wages.

Financial Responsibilities.—The manager is not only morally responsible for his store, but he is financially responsible. He must look out for the stock and for the money taken in from sales. This responsibility differs in actual practice. In some chains no one but the manager is permitted to open the cash drawer or make change. A clerk may take money from a customer, but he has to call the manager to put it in the cash drawer or make change. The rule may seem strict in this case, but it places all responsibility fairly and squarely upon the shoulders of the store manager.

Usually a store manager should be required to furnish a cash bond, and any shrinkage in stock which is unaccounted for is likely to be deducted from this bond. In any chain, allowance is made, of course, for unavoidable shrinkages. Bonding should be required in chains where the financial responsibility of the manager can be adequately protected in this way. A manager with a great deal of authority naturally cannot measure his honesty by any such method, since his position alone is in the nature of a bond. But for the manager of a small branch store a bond is at once a gage of his honesty and a guard against temptation.

Ordinarily, cash receipts from the daily sales in the branch store are put in the local bank. In some local chains cash is collected daily by an employee of the chain. In the Penney stores, receipts are banked, subject to New York draft, three times a week. In some chains, the manager may be allowed to

deduct sums necessary to pay current expenses connected with the operation of the store. In other chains, a "contingent fund" is provided for paying such bills and providing change. Every expenditure, however, must be vouchered, and each week the manager must make a report of the condition of the fund and send in his vouchers for verification. This permits depositing the results of each day's business in total and an audit of vouchers plus an examination of cash in the "contingent fund" quickly establishes actual expenditures of the store.

As a general principle, all money taken in by branch stores is concentrated at headquarters, for two reasons:

1. Purchasing functions are centralized in one place and all other major expenses—salaries, bonuses, etc.—also are paid direct from the central organization.

2. It is easier to teach the average man how to sell goods than it is to teach him finance. The less he has to do with financial responsibilities, other than those absolutely necessary, the better he performs his other duties.

Knowledge of Stock.—Every properly trained store manager knows his stock thoroughly. This is a fundamental requisite of salesmanship and, even though in the majority of cases goods in chain stores sell themselves without the aid or effort of the clerk in displaying their advantages, a knowledge of stock is necessary. Stock must be turned as rapidly as possible. The only way to secure rapid turnover is to specialize on those goods which have shown themselves to be best sellers.

But in all cases there will be some goods which move faster than others. The manager who can keep the slow stock turning over is the most valuable. Thorough knowledge of the stock is required before the manager can order properly. He must be able to tell what will sell in his locality. Putting aside all questions of local and seasonal preferences, which are treated elsewhere, it is the duty of the manager to serve as the local interpreter between the public and the chain's purchasing agent. In the majority of cases the chain manager is allowed to pick out quantities of any article on the list sent out by the warehouse. The manager is supposed to be able to judge the wants of his customers and about how much they will buy.

The problem of knowing stock varies, of course, immensely with the type of goods sold. The problem of a drug store manager is far more complicated than that of the manager of a grocery chain, or of a hosiery store or a shoe store, the sales of which are limited to one product.

Knowledge of stock requires a proper care for details. Price tags should be properly fastened in place and changed promptly. It is bad policy to have a group of articles worth 30 cents marked 10 cents because they happen to be occupying space formerly covered by a 10-cent article.

The manager must see that the appearance of the store is maintained at the proper standard. He must not only notify the central office of articles running low, but he must see that these articles are properly arranged when they arrive.

Prevention of Waste.—The store manager is ordinarily responsible for reducing waste in the operation of the store to a minimum. To see that he accomplishes the desired result, some chains follow a policy of inspection. The United Cigar Stores Company has a printed form for store managers, which lists 74 items which might cause waste and increased expenses. The more important of these are, according to *System:*

1. Watch for plumbing leaks and have them repaired promptly. A small leak in a faucet wastes 63 cents worth of water in a month; a badly worn faucet washer, $2.52 a month; an overflowing toilet flush, $10.08; a small faucet left open, $40.32.

2. Use change trays on the counters to save the cost of replacing scratched glass.

3. Don't use long-distance telephone calls when a day telegram, a night letter, or a special-delivery letter will answer the same purpose; don't use a local telephone call when a letter will answer; don't use a letter when a postal card will answer.

4. In sending telegrams count the words; "twelve-forty-two" signifies the same as "one two four two" and saves a word.

5. Don't suggest delivery of packages when a customer intends to take package along.

6. Do not use good stock for window displays when dummies will answer the same purpose.

7. In the daytime remember that the electric light cannot compete with the sun.

8. Lamps should be tested for correct wattage; don't use large lamps in stockrooms, closets, and toilets, and do not allow them to burn unnecessarily.

9. Certain stationery forms last from one to four years; don't order fresh supplies when there are several pages left in the old book or pad; don't use stationery forms for scratch pads.

10. Waste paper and packing cases can be sold; so can all tin and lead foil; do not throw it away; keep it and sell it.

11. Eliminate express shipments as far as possible, in ordering goods or shipping to customers.

12. Do not waste window cards or other display material; take good care of it, because a card can be used two or three times if kept clean.

13. Look out for overstocking; every thousand dollars of overstock costs $60 a year.

14. Use awnings and sun curtains to protect merchandise.

15. Keep extra electric light bulbs where they will be safe from breakage.

16. Do not use furniture oil on fixtures; powdered castile soap will keep fixtures clean and in good condition; considerable money may be saved on sign boards by washing them frequently with powdered castile soap instead of repainting them.

17. Keeping a daily record of petty cash expenditures, such as carfare, telephone, postage, matches, and other supplies, prevents carelessness and extravagance.

18. Dirt is a destroyer; keep stock in showcases and on shelves clean.

19. Dating stock will prevent it from becoming old.

20. Inventories should be taken at least twice a month by two people.

Other rules refer specifically to United Stores, such as turning off gas to cigar lighters at night, and the purchase of small supplies, such as brooms, mops, paste, twine, and the like, which are purchased at our headquarters in large quantities.

The Manager's Report.—Daily reports should be made in all chains. The details of the report system, however, vary with the size of the chain and the type of product sold. The larger the chain, the more difficult it is to maintain personal contact with the branch stores. Hence it follows that the management must rely on statistical reports for its knowledge of the actual condition of a store. In small chains of five-and-ten-cent stores, centralized within a comparatively small radius, where the owner is in almost daily touch with each store and knows the managers intimately, reports are valuable as checks on his judgment rather

than as courts of last resort. It is almost as easy to overemphasize the value of daily reports as to underemphasize them.

Take the daily reports required from branch managers of a large drug chain.

1. There is a daily sales report, showing all sales, cash and charges, and all receipts from sources other than cash sales. The total as shown by the report is deposited in the bank and the main office receives confirmation of this deposit from the bank direct.

2. Managers are required to make copies of all orders for merchandise. One of these is sent to the main office and supplies a constant record of purchases which is used as a check for buying.

3. Statement of condition of "contingent fund" is sent in daily, together with vouchers of bills paid.

4. All invoices for goods purchased are sent to the main office and immediately on receipt are charged against the purchase account of the store. In order that they may be promptly audited and paid, it is necessary that receipt of the goods be established. For this purpose the quantities are omitted from one of the copies of the original order. When the goods reach the store, they are checked off on this sheet and quantities filled in. If there is breakage or other fault, mention is made on this sheet. It is dated as of the date of receipt of goods signed by and sent in daily by the manager. When this sheet is received in the main office, it is matched with and attached to the invoice.

Inventory and turnover will be discussed in another chapter. Full and complete account of a model system of reports for a grocery chain will be found in the chapter, "Supervision Retail Outlets."

Service to the Community.—The store manager, as has been said, is responsible to the organization for the reputation of the member store in the community. His position is much harder than that of the ordinary independent retailer who knows local conditions, and whose hold on the public has been built up through long and intimate service. The manager of a chain store is at once a link in an impersonal organization and a personal representative.

Some chains allow their managers to give special services at their own expense. Other chains make the manager conform

to strict rule. The question of deliveries, for example, has come to be regarded as a test of chain store efficiency. Managers in some chains are restricted so that they cannot make deliveries, even if the customer pays for the service. The justification of this policy lies in the successful application. But there is and always will be a certain class of customer which wishes and demands service. As competition between chains becomes closer, the question of increased service in order to promote trade is sure to arise. For example, one grocery chain of fairly large size has resumed delivery service, while still selling goods on a par with competing chains. Deliveries, needless to say, are limited to a restricted district.

Another disadvantage under which the chain store labors is that much of its trade, owing to the elimination of credits and deliveries, is transient. Yet, on the other hand, certain managers have been able to obtain a regular class of customers, notably in the grocery chains.

This is where the personality of the manager shows its strongest results—in the manner in which service is rendered to the public.

Conclusions.—One most important point has been already treated elsewhere, namely, the method of paying store managers. Although properly belonging here, it was thought better to put the discussion of the principles involved under the chapter on Organization, in which the store manager plays a leading part.

This chapter has been confined, as far as possible, to the store manager himself, and his duties towards the organization, and to the qualities which render him valuable to that organization. But, considered from any point of view, the store manager is a vital link in the chain store problem. It is necessary to allow him the same initiative, incentive, and interest in the business that is possessed by the independent owner of a retail store.

CHAPTER XVI

WAREHOUSING AND PURCHASING RECORDS

Outline

Proper stock keeping:
1. Form:
   (*a*) 5- by 8-inch stock card.
   (*b*) Kept in vertical file.
   (*c*) Index by commodities.
   (*d*) Separate card for each item.
2. Statistical data furnished buyer:
   (*a*) When to buy.
   (*b*) How much to buy.
   (*c*) From whom to buy.
   (*d*) Approximate time of delivery.

Counting stock:
1. Schedule for counting:
   (*a*) Buyer or warehouse superintendent responsible.
2. Routine methods.

Cost records:
1. Source of data.
2. Routine of recording data.

Price changes:
1. Mark-up and mark-down voucher systems:
   (*a*) Bookkeeping entries necessary.

Salvage:
1. Salvage voucher system:
   (*a*) Routine practice.
2. Necessity of reporting salvage immediately.

Processes involved in typical purchase:
1. Buyer obtains information from stock cards as to:
   (*a*) Time to buy.
   (*b*) Quantity to buy.
   (*c*) From whom to buy.
2. Duplicates of purchase order.
3. Figuring and handling of invoice covering a specific purchase:
   (*a*) Buyer's records.
   (*b*) Temporary invoice file containing:
      (1) Invoices not paid and not received.
      (2) Invoices not paid but received.

(3) Invoices paid but not received.
(4) Invoices pending allowances or disputes.
(5) Invoices pending claims against carriers.

(*c*) Receiving record.
(*d*) Rechecking and figuring unit cost.
(*e*) Entries on books of account and final payment.
(*f*) Permanent invoice files.

CHAPTER XVI

WAREHOUSING AND PURCHASING RECORDS

By John S. Fleek

The warehousing question and the purchasing question are closely allied. It is a constant process of check and balance. Stock in the warehouse must be kept at normal and the purchasing department must be informed whenever there is a shortage or threatened shortage in supply. As has been shown in the previous discussion of the principles involved in proper warehousing and purchasing, this problem is one of the most important in chain store practice. It remains for this chapter to throw some light on the practical working out of a typical warehousing and purchasing problem. As grocery chains are by far the most numerous, one has been used to illustrate typical accounting method.

Warehousing and purchasing come down, in the final analysis, to careful records of inventories, receipts, and shipments of goods needed to supply the retail outlets. Stock keeping and stock records should aim to give the buyer the following information:

1. When to buy.
2. How much to buy.
3. From whom to buy.
4. The rate of stock turn.
5. Seasonal variations.
6. Transportation routes and time between order and delivery.

All these questions are likely to come up at any time and the ability to answer them correctly, quickly, and specifically is highly important from a financial point of view. Warehouse accounting is a prerequisite to intelligent buying and the conduct of the business as a whole. It gives the cash value of the goods

on hand and indicates clearly whether the business can stand the strain of further purchases. It also forms a guide to the amount of insurance necessary to carry.

Canned Corn	Size #2
Curfew Brand	Pkd. 2 doz.
Mfg. Jno. Jones Co.	Unit
Page Standing Order	Maximum 20 cases Minimum 5 cases

Date	On Hand	Ordered		Receipts		Invoiced by
9-1-21	5 cases			9-1-21	15 c.	
9-15-21	19					A. L.
9-29-21	18					
10-14-21	16					
10-28-21	15					F. K.
11-12-21	14					
11-26-21	10					A. L.
12-8-21	5	12-9-21	10 c.			
12-22-21	4					
1-4-22	3			1-8-22	10 c.	A. L.
1-18-22	11					
2-1-22	5	2-2-22	10 c.			

FIG. 36.—Stock record card.

Stock Keeping and Stock Records.—The question which immediately arises here is how to combine, in the most convenient form, both completeness and simplicity. One form, which may be recommended, employs a 5- by 8-inch vertical card (see Fig. 36) with three main columns "On Hand," "Ordered," and "Re-

ceived." A card is made out for every article carried in stock. At the top, this card bears the name and size of the article and the name of its source, whether manufacturer, grower, or broker. Then it gives the maximum quantity of stock of this particular article it is desirable to keep on hand, and also the minimum under

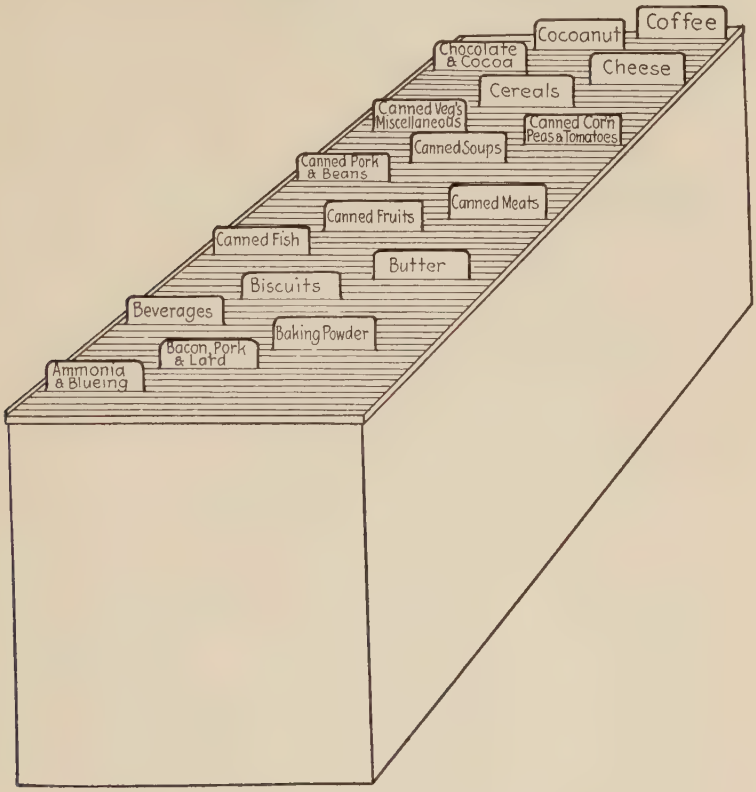


FIG. 37.—Vertical stock card file.

which the amount of the article in stock must not be allowed to drop.

All articles leaving the warehouse are entered on these cards, which serve to give the buyer information as to when and how much to buy. With some routine buying of steadily moving staple items, a standing weekly or monthly order will serve and, in that event, should be entered on the card. If the man who

counts the stock and enters the quantity places his initials in the last column on the card, responsibility for a proper count is fixed.

These cards are kept in vertical files and indexed by groups, preferably in the order used in the price list. All books or files containing data about the merchandise should be arranged in exactly the same order, so that in consulting the various files or books the least amount of effort will be required. After a clerk becomes accustomed to the order of arrangement, he turns to the item almost automatically.

Figure 37 shows the arrangement of the cards in the vertical file. The headings on the cards, of course, can be varied at will.

Counting Stock.—Readily moving items should be counted weekly for stock on hand. Those with a lower rate of turnover should be counted biweekly, and others only monthly. A schedule can be constructed putting all articles carried into certain groups for stock taking. For example, if business at the warehouse is usually quieter on Tuesday, Wednesday, and Saturday, a schedule can be worked out with this in view as follows:

Bi-weekly and monthly schedules taken on Tuesdays.
Groups, V, VI, VII, VIII, IX, X, XI, XII.
Weekly schedules on Wednesdays and Saturdays.
Groups I, II, III, IV.
The contents of the groups would be made up as follows:

Weekly	Bi-weekly	Monthly
I. Bacon, pork, lard	V. Baking powder	IX. Ammonia
Biscuits	Canned meats	Beverages
Butter	Canned soup	Canned fish
Cereals	Canned corn, tomatoes, peas	X. Canned fruits
Cheese	Crisco and oils	Canned pork and beans
Cocoa and chocolate	VI. Dried beans and peas	Canned vegetables, misc.
Coffee	Dried fruits	XI. Cocoanut
II. Eggs	Extracts	Disinfectants and drugs
Flour, meal, etc.	Fish, salt	Glassware
Milk	Gelatines	Paper
III. Soaps, laundry	VII. Honeys, jams, jellies	Polish
Soaps, powder	Macaroni	XII. Soda and lime
Sugar	Relishes, pickles, etc.	Vinegar
Teas	VIII. Soaps, toilet	Woodenware and supplies
IV. Yeast	Spices	
Matches	Molasses, syrups	
Salt	Tapioca	
Starch		
Vegetables in season		

Each chain would find it necessary to make many changes in the details of the arrangement outlined above, but the funda-

mental idea can be adopted with little difficulty. On the basis as described here, the following control schedule can be made up for the month.

First week			Second week			Third week			Fourth week		
Tues.	Wed.	Sat.	Tues.	Wed.	Sat.	Tues.	Wed.	Sat.	Tues.	Wed.	Sat.
V VI	I II	III IV IX	VII VIII	I II	III IV X	V VI	I II	III IV XI	VII VIII	I II	III IV XII

Under ordinary circumstances, the buyer would be responsible for having this schedule carried out. He takes the cards out of the file on the proper date and gives them to the stock man. The stock man, in turn, makes a physical count of goods on hand as indicated by the card headings and enters the result of his count. Then he returns the cards to the buyer, who looks to see whether he needs to make any purchases.

If the buyer purchases anything, he records the date and the quantity purchased in the order column (see Fig. 36). When the goods arrive, the clerk who is responsible for receiving goods enters the date of receipt and the quantity. He may enter receipts first on a book and then enter the receipts later on the cards.

Methods of Accounting to Arrive at Cost.—In order to give the management the information it needs to carry on the business intelligently, it is necessary not only to build up a stock system which will show the turnover of each item carried, the time to buy, and the amount to pay, but also, by means of a system of cost keeping, to obtain an accurate record in figures from the accounting department of exactly where the business stands and just what is the cash value of inventories. This information should be current and, to be valuable, must be in strict agreement with the financial books. It should be available not only on the dates when the physical inventories at the warehouse are figured, but at all times. These stated physical inventories should then become only a check on the book values by the actual count of stock. If the system is not defective, and if the discrepancy between cash value of book inventory and cash value of physical

inventory is slight, it is an indication that the records are working accurately. But if the discrepancy is great, there is a possibility of theft, which should be investigated. A large discrepancy usually is attributable either to theft, a poor system, or the careless handling of a good system.

The method here recommended is a simple one that has proved its cost-keeping value in wholesale groceries and chain warehouses.

The foundation of all subsequent accounts for merchandise is based on the correct initial figuring and recording of the cost of merchandising purchased; that is, the entries for merchandise on the merchandise account must be at the correct cost figure. For simplicity of illustration, various classifications of merchandise are not separated into separate accounts.

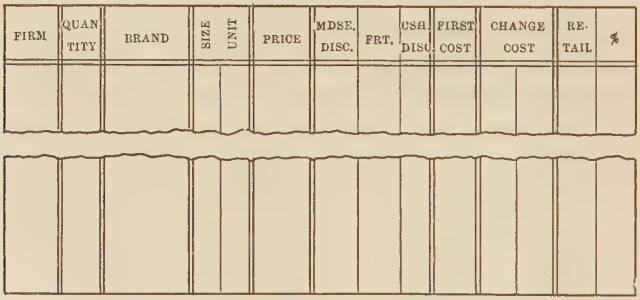


Fig. 38.—Page from cost record book.

A cost record book is kept by the buyer or buyers. This book is indexed in the same way as the price lists and card file. For a sample of convenient headings, see Fig. 38. These include all the necessary information for those who desire it.

When the goods are received, the buyer figures their unit cost (taking net invoice price, not including cash discount, freight, cartage, and the like) and enters such data in the cost record book. At the same time he also enters the selling price in the book. In this way, the cost record book and records hereafter used for figuring the cost of merchandise items in detail will give a unit cost which will correspond in proper ratio to the total cost as entered in the merchandise account by the bookkeeper.

For example, the following bill is received.

JNO. JONES CO.

To.....

2% 10 days Date.....

	Price per Doz.	Quantity	Extension
10 Boxes Curfew Corn.....	$1.50	20	$30.00
Less 20% trade discount.....			6.00
Net.....			24.00
Less 2%.....			.48
			23.52

The following freight list is for this shipment.

B. & A.—FREIGHT BILL

To..... From Jno. Jones Co.

	Weight	Rate	Amount
10 Boxes Canned Corn.....	500	48	$2.40

The bookkeeper makes the following entries.

Mdse. purchased		Freight & Cartage		Discount on purchases	
$24.00		$2.40			$0.48

The buyer makes the following entries in his cost book.

Firm	Brand	Size	Unit	Price	Mdse. disc.	Frt.	Cash disc.	First cost net	Change cost	Sell price	% Mark up
Jones	Curfew	2		$1.50 per doz.	20%	.01	2%	.11		.15	26%

And the above results he writes on the bulletin, discussed in detail later, as follows:

Item	Cost	Retail
Curfew Corn	.11	.15

From this the clerks in the office enter the information on their cost and selling price lists.

Now assume that store No. 5 orders five cases of this corn. This order comes in on the regular order blank, which is described in the section on retail accounting.

When this order has been filled and checked out by the shipping clerk, it comes back into the office to the cost clerks to be figured. From their price lists, which correspond exactly with the cost record book of the buyer, they enter as follows:

ORDER BLANK

Store No. 5

Units			Cost		Retail	
			Price	Amt.	Price	Amt.
5 Cases	120	Curfew Corn	.11	13.20	.15	18.00

Cost figures—WBC Retail—DEF	Posted By GH	Retail Cost Profit Gross	$18.00 13.20 4.80

From this order blank the bookkeeper enters

Mdse. shipment A (Cost) | $13.20

Mdse. shipment B (Profit) | $4.80

Store No. 5 | $18.00

Now, suppose the fiscal period is at an end. A physical inventory is taken; and Curfew Corn is typical of every item in stock. The stock in the warehouse is counted and found to consist of five cases. This quantity is entered on the inventory sheet by the man counting the stock. The inventory sheet is sent to the buyer (or his assistant) to be priced. He refers to his cost record book (if the market remains unchanged) and enters the price on the inventory. It is next extended as follows:

Description		Unit	Price	Extensions
5 Cases	Curfew Corn.....	120	.11	$13.20
Totals.....				$13.20

Since the assumption, for the sake of simplicity, is that Curfew Corn represents the whole stock of merchandise, the bookkeeper takes $13.20 as the total merchandise inventory for closing his books.

It can now be determined how near the book inventory is to the physical inventory. The bookkeeper closes into simple "merchandise trading account" the merchandise purchased and merchandise shipments at cost and freight on purchases.

MERCHANDISE TRADING ACCOUNT

Purchase.....	$24.00	Mdse. shipment A at cost..	$13.20
Frt. on purchase.....	2.40	Balance.....	13.20
	$26.40		$26.40
Book Val. Inv.....	$13.20		

The book value of the inventory is now seen to be the same as the actual value after a physical count has been priced and extended from the cost record book. In other words, the cost and price lists have been kept in such a way that they tally with the accounts of the bookkeeper. The records used for the daily figuring of merchandise transactions in detail are seen to correspond to the books of accounts, and these figures taken from the

books at any time (on short notice) can give a virtually accurate statement of actual condition. This is of great advantage to the management; for it gives at any time the following data:

1. Cash (book) value of merchandise inventory (warehouse) at cost.

2. Shipments to the company's retail stores at cost and at retail.

3. Book profit (gross) for the whole business and per store.

Price Changes.—The above assumed case is a simple and an ideal one. As a matter of fact, the market is shifting up or down a great deal, and, besides, goods are constantly deteriorating in the warehouse stock. It is necessary, therefore, to set up two more accounts, "warehouse mark-ups and mark-downs" and "salvage."

In the first, suppose that the buyer now purchases 10 cases more of Curfew Corn. This time he pays $1.80 per dozen, less 20 per cent for it. When he figures his invoice, he finds he must raise his cost from 11 to 13 cents, and his selling price from 15 to 18 cents. Then he makes the following entries:

1. In the cost record book he rubs out the old figures, which were in pencil, and puts in the new ones, in pencil also.

Canned Corn

Firm	Brand	Size	Unit	Price	Merchandise discount	Freight	Cash discount	First cost net	Change cost	Sell price	Per cent
Jones	Curfew	2	....	$1.80 doz.	20%	$.01	2%	$.13	.....	$.18	22

2. On the daily bulletin he makes the following announcement:

Curfew Corn

Old cost.....	$.11	Old retail.....	$.15
New cost.....	.13	New retail.....	.18

The cost clerks get their information and change the price in their books from this daily bulletin. Moreover, the clerk in charge of keeping the retail stores informed of price changes sends them out notice of the retail price change by the methods explained in detail elsewhere.

3. On the warehouse mark-up voucher the buyer enters the item and the old and new unit cost prices and difference. He next signs and dates this and sends it to the stock man. The latter at once goes to the pile or piles of the merchandise listed on the mark-up voucher, gets the physical count, and at once turns it back to the proper person in the office, who figures it and then turns it over to the bookkeeper.

The following entries, for example, are made on the warehouse mark-up voucher:

Warehouse Mark-up Voucher — No. 467, Date 3-1-22

Stock counted	Articles	Old cost	New cost	Mark-up	Am't.	Extension	
5 Cases	Curfew Corn	.11	.13	.02	120	2.40	
Totals....						2.40	

Stock costed on.....by .....
Mark-down figured.....by.....
Entered mdse. cost.....by.....
Entered cost book.....by.....

The bookkeeper now enters:

Warehouse Mark-ups and Mark-downs

No. 467 MU.....	$2.40	

Now suppose the 10 cases ordered the second time come in, and five cases are again sold to store No. 5. And suppose that immediately after this comes the periodic physical inventory of the warehouse stock at cost. The books should show the following:

Merchandise Purchases (Billed cost)

Inventory	$13.20
Second Lot Purchased	28.80

Freight and Cartage on Mdse. Purchased

Second lot Frt	$2.40

Merchandise shipments A (at cost)

	Store No. 5 $15.60

Merchandise shipments B (profit)

	Store No. 5 $6.00

Store No. 5

Mdse. Shipments	$21.60

Mark-ups and mark-downs

No. 467 MU	$2.40

By transferring these into a single merchandise trading account:

Merchandise Trading

Inventory	$13.20		
Second lot purchased	28.80		
Freight second lot	2.40	Shipments A (at cost)	$15.60
No. 467 MU	2.40	Balance (bank inventory)	31.20
	$46.80		$46.80
Inventory	$31.20		

This gives a book inventory at $31.20. By actual count there should be 10 cases in stock. The counter enters this on an inventory blank and sends it to the office to be costed and extended. The buyer enters the cost from the cost record book at 13 cents per unit and extends as follows:

10 cases Curfew Corn—240 cans .13—$13.20

Similar entries on the credit side of the ledger should be made for a mark-down.

Salvage.—The "salvage" account is set up for the following reasons and in the following way:

Suppose that, out of the 10 cases of Curfew Corn, 24 cans, or one whole case, spoiled while in the warehouse before inventory. How is the merchandise to be credited? If the cans are "dumped" and no count taken, there will be a discrepancy between book and physical inventories. Therefore, a salvage account is set up, and, to take care of this, a system of records, known as "salvage vouchers" is inaugurated.

SALVAGE VOUCHER

No. 40 Folio No .....
To ..... Date .....

Condition	Quantity		Cost Price	Extension

Disposition .....
By .....

Entry made on books of account
By ..... Date .....

The stock man has a supply of these vouchers. As soon as he finds any articles spoiled or damaged, he takes them out of the main stock and segregates them in a separate section called "the hospital." At the same time, he fills out a salvage voucher and sends it in to the buyer or merchandise manager. The latter inspects the goods and determines whether or not they have a salable value. He then orders disposition of them (whether to be dumped or held in hospital for sale at a price), indicates this on the salvage voucher, and brings the voucher into the office, where it is figured and turned over to the bookkeeper. "Mer-

chandise" is credited with the entire amount and "salvage" is charged. If any goods in the hospital are subsequently sold, salvage is credited with the amount they have brought in.

If it is assumed that the loss is 24 cans of Curfew Corn, the accounts are:

Merchandise		Salvage	
Salvage	$3.12	Curfew Corn	$3.12

In order to obtain uniformity, economy, and standardization, warehouse mark-down and mark-up vouchers, warehouse salvage vouchers, and warehouse credit memos should all be of the same size and fit the same size post binders. If a physical inventory is now taken, nine cases of Curfew Corn will be found in stock. Extended at 13 cents per can, they amount to $28.08. Thus the merchandise account closes correctly.

MERCHANDISE ACCOUNT

Inventory	$13.20	Shipments A (at cost)	$15.60
Second lot purchased	28.80	Salvage	3.12
Freight	2.40	Inventory balance	28.80
Mark-up 467	2.40		$46.80
	$46.80		
Inventory	$28.08		

The greatest service the salvage account and the salvage system renders is that it informs the buyer of spoilage, in whole or in part, as soon as it comes to the attention of the stock man. By this means, damaged goods can often be sold at once at a price, whereas otherwise the goods might not be discovered until all salable value has departed. When goods are sold from "hospital," salvage is credited and the buyer can reduce his salvage losses. This is particularly true for vegetables, fruits, cheese, meats, butter, dried fruit, etc.

Processes Involved in a Typical Purchase.—It seems appropriate before leaving the warehouse problem to include a few remarks regarding processes involved in the typical purchase and receipt of goods. This will show how the various procedures

above mentioned dovetail into one another and tend to make the whole central organization function properly.

The buyer learns from an inspection of stock cards (or daily shortage list on daily executive report explained later) and subsequent reference to cards that it is time to make a purchase of a certain article of merchandise. From the information the stock card gives him, showing the average weekly, monthly, or seasonal sales of the past, the buyer determines what quantity to purchase. He then writes the order on his duplicate purchase order, referring to his cost record book for the previous cost, if need be. In the "Ordered" column of the stock card, he enters

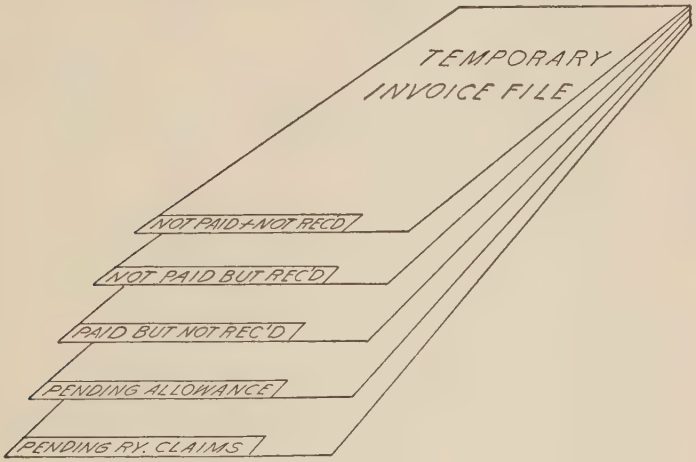


FIG. 39.—Temporary invoice file.

the date and quantity ordered. One copy of the purchase order he keeps in his loose-leaf binder (preferably indexed alphabetically according to firm name of source). The other copy he sends to the source—the manufacturer, the grower, or the broker.

In a few days, confirmation arrives from the manufacturer, and the buyer notes this on his retained copy of the purchase order and attaches confirmation to it. Later, the invoice arrives. The buyer should now compare the invoice with his purchase order and check prices, discounts, and terms, marking on the purchase order the date of shipment. It is recommended that the buyer have two loose-leaf binders for his copies of purchase

orders, one for current orders not completely shipped, the other for orders completely shipped.

If there are no discrepancies, he puts his O. K. on the invoice, notes in it the discount date, and turns it over to the clerk in charge of the temporary invoice file.

The temporary invoice file should be arranged with the following sections (see Fig. 39):

1. Invoices not paid and not received.
2. Invoices not paid but received.
3. Invoices paid but not received.
4. Invoices pending allowances or disputes.
5. Invoices pending claims against carriers.

In each of these sections the invoices are to be kept loose and arranged alphabetically by commodities, in the same order as the price list and stock record files. This arrangement standardizes and facilitates the work of the clerk making entries. This provision gives a regular arrangement for every article carried, and the clerk, as stated previously, turns automatically to the right page. The office clerks have a mental picture of the order of the price book, so that when they think of any item they immediately associate it with the standard place in the registered order of the lists and files.

By having five separate sections, provision is made for paying invoices on the discount date, even if goods are not yet received, and for holding invoices pending a settlement before putting them in the permanent invoice file and, most important of all, for separating the invoices of goods received from those of goods not received. This last feature greatly aids the clerk who is checking receiving records against the invoices.

To return to a strict discussion of the typical course of a purchase and receipt of goods, when the articles arrive at the warehouse, the stock man enters the quantity and condition on his receiving record, as described heretofore, and the duplicate copy of this he sends to the clerk in charge of the temporary invoice file. This clerk turns to the section "Invoices not paid and not received," picks out the invoice of this shipment, and stamps it received. He now enters the date and quantity in the "Received" column of the proper stock card and then

turns the invoice with attached freight or cartage expense bill over to the buyer.

The buyer now refigures the net unit cost per item on the face of the bill and compares this with the figures on his cost record book. If there is any change, he takes the necessary steps

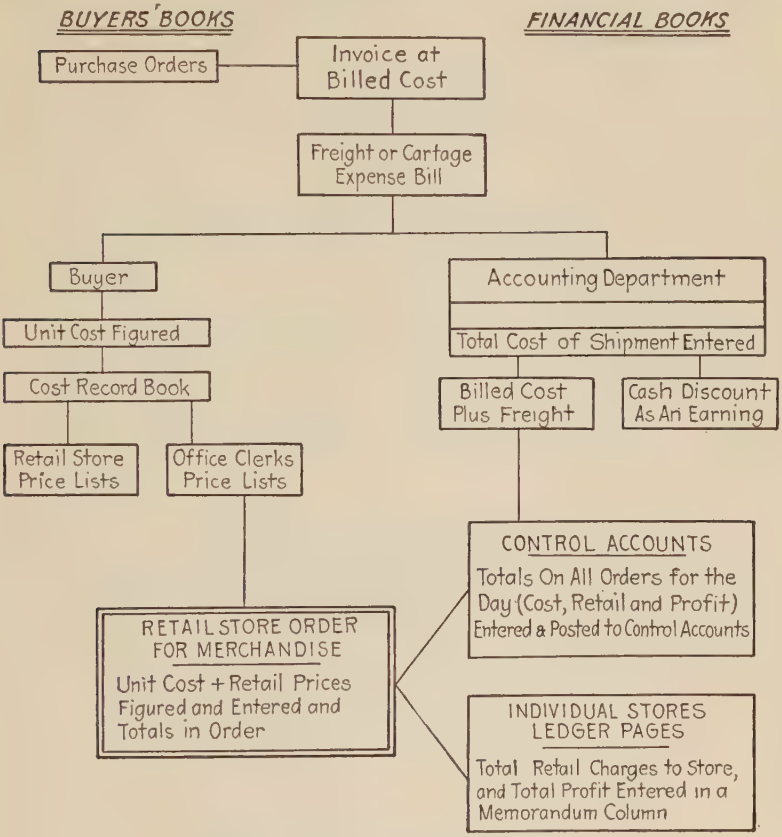

BUYERS' BOOKS
FINANCIAL BOOKS
Purchase Orders
Invoice at Billed Cost
Freight or Cartage Expense Bill
Buyer
Unit Cost Figured
Cost Record Book
Retail Store Price Lists
Office Clerks Price Lists
Accounting Department
Total Cost of Shipment Entered
Billed Cost Plus Freight
Cash Discount As An Earning
CONTROL ACCOUNTS
Totals On All Orders for the Day (Cost, Retail and Profit) Entered & Posted to Control Accounts
RETAIL STORE ORDER FOR MERCHANDISE
Unit Cost + Retail Prices Figured and Entered and Totals in Order
INDIVIDUAL STORES LEDGER PAGES
Total Retail Charges to Store, and Total Profit Entered in a Memorandum Column

FIG. 40.—Course of purchase order.

by means of the mark-up and mark-down vouchers, bulletins, etc., to bring all cost and selling price lists uniformly up-to-date, and then turns the invoice back to the clerk.

If the goods are in stock for the first time, a new entry is made on the cost record book, and the information is put on the bulletin so that the addition will be made on all lists. The

clerk now puts the invoice in its proper section of the temporary invoice file awaiting payment. In this case, it would go into Section Two.

This clerk is responsible for seeing that invoices are paid at the proper time. One of his first duties is to go through the file and turn over to the bookkeeper for payment all the invoices due that day. The bookkeeper, after paying them, stamps them paid, and turns them back to the clerk who puts them either in the temporary invoice file (if goods are not received, or if some question is pending), or files them away in the permanent file.

Conclusions.—This chapter finishes the technical discussion of stock keeping, stock accounting, and purchasing records. The three are interdependent in the processes of handling the merchandise from its source to the retail store. Figure 40 shows in chart form the various phases through which an order for purchase passes before the receipt of the goods is finally checked off on each individual store's ledger. This chart might be used for other types of chain stores, and is not necessarily confined to groceries, although if it were used elsewhere there would have to be modifications.

The forms shown in this chapter are illustrative of a method now in use and should be used suggestively rather than copied exactly. If it merely indicates some ways in which a present system may be made to function more efficiently, the detailed explanation given will have served its purpose.

CHAPTER XVII

SUPERVISION OF RETAIL OUTLETS

Outline

Uniform retail prices throughout chain secured by:
1. Price lists.
2. Daily bulletins.
3. Retail mark-ups and mark-downs.
4. Weekly change sheets.

Price lists:
1. Figured by buyer.
2. Sent to store managers.

Daily bulletins:
1. Containing:
   (*a*) Changes in cost.
   (*b*) Notation of new goods.
2. Duty of clerk to send copy to all store managers.

Mark-ups and mark-downs:
1. Routine practice.

Weekly change sheet:
1. Compilation of all changes on daily bulletins.
2. Store manager held responsible for prices on weekly change sheets.

Policing of retail outlets:
1. Personal visits to store:
   (*a*) Check up prices.
   (*b*) Inspect care of store.
   (*c*) Check cash register.
2. Physical inventory:
   (*a*) At regular stated intervals.
3. Traveling auditors.

Account methods for retail operations:
1. Regular warehouse shipment order.
2. Credit memorandums for goods returned to warehouse by stores.
3. Daily reports of store managers.
4. Use of special ruled cash receipt book.
5. Use of periodic retail store inventories.
6. Arriving at percentage of retail store profit.

CHAPTER XVII

SUPERVISION OF RETAIL OUTLETS

By John S. Fleek

This chapter contains a model system for controlling retail outlets as used in a moderate-sized grocery chain. Other methods are outlined in other chapters, but for a better understanding of the subject it has been thought wise to follow one system and one definite example throughout the whole process, in order that anyone really interested in the continuity of the routine followed may find it easier to understand.

The framework of sound accurate accounting methods and of direct merchandise price control must be supplemented by frequent inspection in person by the store's superintendent and the chief executive.

As the organization assumes larger proportions, the executive finds that haphazard supervision of checks and balances and policing can no longer obtain if he is to have efficient control of his business. A regular routine of duties needs to be established so that the individual store account will show actual conditions, the store managers will sell articles at the price determined upon, and the superintendent and his assistants will follow the stores properly and see that instructions are being obeyed.

Uniform Pricing.—Uniform retail prices, as fixed by the central office throughout all the branch stores, are brought about by the following means:

1. Price lists.
2. Daily bulletins.
3. Retail mark-up and mark-down notices.
4. Weekly change sheets.

Prices are established and proceed from the merchandise department. The buyer figures a unit cost on each article and then, by himself or by the advice of the executive department,

the selling price ("retail"). Both these figures are entered in the cost record book—see page 272—which becomes a fountain head of all knowledge to the organization, in so far as merchandise prices (cost and retail) are concerned.

The office figuring clerks and superintendent are given complete price lists of all articles carried, for these individuals must have constant records of such information.

Retail store managers are likewise given complete price lists, which are virtually copies of the cost record book, and identical with the office price lists, except that only the retail prices appear therein. The store managers thus know the price at which to sell every item and can put price tags on their shelves accurately.

Were it not for the fact that prices are constantly changing and articles being added to or taken from the selling list, the problem of price control would be solved merely by issuing the lists to the retail managers. But the solution is not so easily achieved and the problem thus becomes one of providing for getting the changes that are known in the office and there recorded in the cost record book to all the books of all the retail store managers. This dissemination of information is brought about by means of (1) the daily bulletin, (2) the retail mark-up and mark-down notices, and (3) the weekly change sheets.

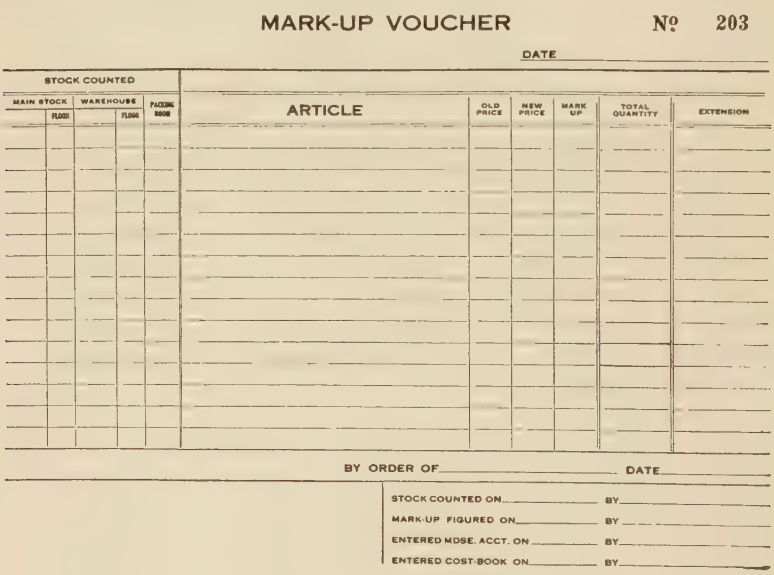
1. The daily bulletin is kept in a diary form at a central point in the central offices, so that the office clerks may have ready access to it. In it the buyer enters changes in cost and selling prices of the articles carried in stock from the data on his cost record book, and makes notation of new goods just arrived, giving their cost and selling prices, and of goods no longer carried. The office figuring clerks make the changes on their price lists from this information and initial the entries on the daily bulletin to show their responsibility for having brought the lists up-to-date.

So that this information may reach the stores at a given time each day, it is the duty of one clerk to make copies of the daily bulletin page, recording only retail prices, and to send them to all the retail managers.

If speed is desired in transmitting the price changes, the retail managers can be given the latest prices over the telephone, the messages being confirmed later by a copy of the bulletin.

2. The same clerk makes out mark-ups and mark-downs and prepares notices for all the stores from the information on changes. When the store manager receives a mark-up or a mark-down notice, he counts his stock of the articles enumerated, signs the slip, and returns it with his next daily report showing the additional merchandise charge or credit on this report (see Fig. 41).

3. Weekly change sheets are made out every Saturday and mailed to the retail store managers. Figure 42 shows a form in


MARK-UP VOUCHER No. 203

DATE

STOCK COUNTED					ARTICLE	OLD PRICE	NEW PRICE	MARK UP	TOTAL QUANTITY	EXTENSION
MAIN STOCK		WAREHOUSE		PACKING ROOM						
	FLOOR		FLOOR							

BY ORDER OF _____ DATE _____

STOCK COUNTED ON _____ BY _____

MARK-UP FIGURED ON _____ BY _____

ENTERED MDSE. ACCT. ON _____ BY _____

ENTERED COST-BOOK ON _____ BY _____

Fig. 41.—Mark-up voucher.

use in a grocery chain. These sheets constitute a compilation of all the changes, additions, corrections, and deductions that have appeared on the daily bulletins, and serve as an additional means of verifying the retail price lists and of bringing them up-to-date. The store manager is held directly responsible for selling his groceries at the prices given on the last change sheet. Consequently, as soon as he receives one, he should at once go over his price list with it, making the necessary changes and corrections.

CHANGE SHEET NO. G AND WEEKLY BULLETIN

Instructions.

This CHANGE SHEET is issued at the same time that PRICE LIST NO. 1 is given to you. Go over your price list at once with this CHANGE SHEET and make the necessary additions and corrections on the price list as per instructions in general order attached.

2. These are the changes of the past week. Owing to the length of time it took to get the PRICE LIST printed, it comes to you a week late. Hence you have all these changes to make at once.

3. BISCUIT LISTS for Loose-Wiles and National will be sent out in a few days.

PRICE CHANGES AND ADDITIONS

	Ammonia and Bluing	
New	Sawyer's Bluing, large	.25
	Butter, etc.	
New	Diamond Oleomargarine	.31
Change	Butter tubs	.63
	Canned Goods	
New	Star Boneless Herring	.19
Change	Red Salmon	.35
Change	Tomatoes No. 2	.11
New	Libby Tomato Soup	.08⅓
	Cheese	
New	Blue Ribbon, cream	.17
New	Blue Ribbon, pimento	.17
Change	Mild	.37
Change	Young America	.39
	Cocoa and Chocolate	
New	Bensdorps Cocoa, 2 oz	.14
Change	Beck cocoa, unsweetened	.25
Change	Beck cocoa, sweetened	.29
	Crisco and Oils	
Change	Mazola, pts	.33
	Eggs	
New	Monogram eggs	.72
	Fish	
Change	Beardsleys Shredded Cod	.34
	Flour, etc.	
Change	King Arthur, 12½	1.15
Change	King Arthur, 24½	2.20
Change	Aunt Jemima, pc	.20
Change	Rice, Flutter, pk	.12½
Change	Corn meal, pkg	.05½
Change	Corn meal, bulk	.05

Etc.

FIG. 42.—Form of weekly change sheet.

It is understood that prices on these lists will be entered in pencil to facilitate making the many alterations now so frequently necessary.

Thus, by daily bulletins, mark-up and mark-down notices, and weekly change sheets, all price lists in their several degrees of completeness are made to conform with the latest entries on the cost record book, and thus a system of merchandise and price control is established.

Policing of Retail Outlets.—Constant personal supervision and policing of the retail branches is necessary, for in no other

WAREHOUSE ORDER

Store No._____ Address_____ Sheet No._____

Manager_____

DATE ORDERED	DATE RECEIVED	APPROVED	REGISTER NO.	DATE SHIPPED	SHIPPING NO.

Shp'r Check	Quan	Unit		ARTICLE	SIZE	BRAND	Contained	LOT NO.	Price	COST Extension	Price	RETAIL Extension
			1									
			2									
			3									
			40									
			41									

RETAIL PRICES CHECKED BY [1]	[2]	TOTAL COST				
		PROFIT				
[3] RETAIL PRICES POSTED BY	[4] COST BY	RETAIL				
[5] COST FOOTED BY	[6] COST POSTED BY	Store No._____ Receipt Received_____				

FIG. 43.—Warehouse order blank.

way is the central office to know whether instructions are being obeyed and whether the store managers are honest. To provide this, the store superintendent tries to visit each store every day. On such trips he will check up the prices and price list of the manager, will inspect the store for cleanliness, window displays, appearance, and general marketing methods, and will get a check on the cash register.

It is distinctly desirable that the superintendent take a physical inventory of each store at least once a month. This shows up leakage through carelessness and dishonesty in an undeniable manner. If goods are charged against a store at retail from the first of the month, to the amount of $500, and at the time of

inventory the cash register shows sales at retail amounting to $400, clearly the store should have an inventory that, when figured at retail amounts, should come to $100.

Many chains have traveling auditors who visit branch stores at specified or unexpected times and take inventory.

Accounting for a Retail Grocery Store.—In the development of a system of accounts to provide the needed information and checks upon retail outlets, it is well to consider what would happen if a new branch were being opened, which may be called, for purposes of illustration, store No. 35.

The store manager sends to the central office his initial order on the company's order blank (see Fig. 43). The order is registered and goes to the warehouse to be filled. Here the shipping clerk "checks out" the order for store No. 35 as he loads the truck, seeing that the proper quantities and units are entered on the order blank. The driver takes a yellow copy of the order with the goods, so that the store manager can check up the items delivered and can use the blank as a basis for giving a receipt for the merchandise and as a comparison with the charge against his store.

The shipping clerk sends the white copy of the order to the office to be extended. The clerks price and extend the order from their price lists, enter the totals for "costs," "retail," and "profit," and the order is then ready for posting.

Orders for the day are bound and numbered in a permanent folio and thus become part of the quasi-sales book, or folio number being used as a check in posting. Totals for the day are posted to the various merchandise accounts.

Store No. 35
Jan. 1, 1922 Folio No. 46

Unit	Article	Size	Brand	Price	Cost	Price	Retail
100	XX	2½	XX	.80	80.00	1.00	100.00

Total cost ..... $ 80.00
Total profit 20.00
Total retail 100.00

The bookkeeping entries are as follows for January 1:

1. In the Journal for Control accounts (daily total)
Jan. 1, 1921

Shipments to retail outlets.....	$100.00	
To merchandise costs.....		$80.00
To merchandise profits.....		20.00

2. In the ledger page on store No. 35:

Store 35 Page 142

Date	Folio	Item	Debit at retail	Memo. profit	Date	Folio	Item	Credit retail	Memo. profit
1/1	46	Order	100.00	20.00	1/1	Cm-16	Return	10.00	2.00
/3		Daily	4.40	1.65	/3	c-61	Cash sales	26.75	
		Report			1/4	I-14	Inv.	67.65	
/4		Inv.	104.40 67.65					104.40	

If now No. 35 sends back part of the goods delivered on January 2, the receiving clerk makes out a slip on the credit memorandum (see Fig. 44), entering only quantity and description.

CREDIT VOUCHER No. 702

To _____

SALESMAN _____
No. (_____
DATE _____

CONDITION	QUANTITY	ARTICLES	QUAN. TITY	SELLING PRICE	SELLING PRICE AMOUNT	COST PRICE	COST PRICE AMOUNT	PROFIT
TOTALS								

Rec'd on _____ By _____
Surv'd on _____ By _____
Disposition _____
Error Due to _____
Approved by _____
Date _____

R.R. CLAIM
Claim Entered Against _____ R.R.
Date _____
Amount $ _____
Our Claim No. _____
By _____ Traffic Mfg.

CREDIT ANALYSIS
1. Credit Entered on _____ By _____
Against _____ Salesman
2. Credit Notice Card sent
On _____ By _____
3. No Notice Needed _____
4. _____
Entered on Books
Date _____ By _____

FIG. 44.—Credit voucher.

An authorized person then inspects the goods and determines whether credit will be allowed. If the credit is O.K'd, it will go to the clerks first to be figured (cost, retail profit) and then to the bookkeeper.

CREDIT MEMO

Cm Folio No. 16
To..... Date Jan. 2, 1921

Condition	Quantity	Articles	Quantity	Cost		Retail		Profit
				Price	Am't	Price	Am't	
O.K.	10	XXX		.80	8.00	1.00	10.00	2.00

These credit memos are put in a permanent folio and numbered. When the credits are posted, the bookkeeper sends a credit memo post card to the store involved, for its use in checking against its other accounts. The entries are as follows:

In the journal for the entire day, taking totals for the day from the credit memo folio:

January 2, 1922

Merchandise cost.....	$8.00	
Merchandise profit.....	2.00	
To merchandise shipments to retail outlets.....		$10.00

For ledger entry, see preceding page.

The daily report from each manager (see Fig. 45) brings into the office the complete story of the happenings of the day. The retail business is on a strictly cash basis; hence sales are the direct credit to merchandise at retail charged against the store's ledger account.

The daily stores report is in six sections. Section 1 shows goods bought and received by the store manager and mark-ups

and mark-downs charged against his store through the central office. Section 2 shows the amount paid out for any merchandise that the manager has bought directly during the day. Section 3 shows the amount paid out directly for expenses by the manager, and section 4 rebates. A summary of transactions is made in section 5, and section 6 is a duplicate summary retained in the store by the manager.

MUST BE WRITTEN IN INK

*Sheet No.*_____

*Register No.*_____

Receiving Record No. 10460

Store No. _____ *Date*_____

Managers are requested to enter all goods received in the store since previous record was made out, which are not on original Warehouse-Shipment. If nothing is received, write "Nothing" and sign.

Quan.	Unit	FROM	ARTICLE	COST Price	COST Extension	RETAIL Price	RETAIL Extension

RETAIL PRICES CHECKED BY					
(1) Cost Figured by	(2) Cost Verified by	TOTAL COST			
		PROFIT			
(3) Retail Figured by	(4) Retail Verified by	RETAIL			
(5) Cost Posted by	(6) Retail Posted by				

*Signature*_____*Manager*

FIG. 45*A*.—Manager's daily report. (Section 1.)

On the assumption that store No. 35 is opened for business on January 3, 1922, the daily stores report should be sent to the office with the amount of cash equal to the day's sales less deductions. Arrangements can be made with local banks in certain suburbs to collect the money from retail stores and place it on deposit. The total amount of cash sales is credited to each store's merchandise ledger account (see cash receipts).

MERCHANDISE PAID FOR

No. 10460

*Store No.*_____ *Date*_____

MANAGER SIGNS EACH TRANSACTION	$	Cts.	SIGNATURE
Write Total in Space Below			
TOTAL TO BE ENTERED ON CASH SHEET			O. K.

EXPENSES PAID FOR

MANAGER SIGNS EACH TRANSACTION	$	Cts.	SIGNATURE
Write Total in Space Below			
TOTAL TO BE ENTERED ON CASH SHEET			O.K.

REBATES

(This covers all money refunded or overcharged, and all over-rings on Cash Register)

MANAGER SIGNS EACH TRANSACTION	$	Cts.	SIGNATURE
Write Total in Space Below			
TOTAL TO BE ENTERED ON CASH SHEET			O.K.

Superintendent signs after having examined and approved all items in spaces above

O. K. for all items above

_____

Supt

FIG. 45*B*.—Manager's daily report. (Sections 2, 3, and 4.)

The report is received in the office by the bookkeeper who checks the manager's entries, counts the cash, checks for mark-up and mark-down items on section 1, which he detaches and turns over to the clerks for figuring, making at the same time entries in the cost column for merchandise items paid for by the store manager. This prevents the control merchandise account from being charged twice for items paid for by the store manager.

CASH RECEIPTS

DATE	DESCRIPTION	CREDITS				DEBITS													
			CASH-SALES RETAIL STORES		SUNDRIES	MDSE PURCHASES DIRECTION STORE			DIRECT RETAILS EXPENSES			REBATES			SUNDRIES NET CASH				
		✓				✓			✓			✓			✓			✓	
JAN. 3	STORE #35	142	26	75		1		75	493	1	00						1	25	00
	"																		
	"																		
	"																		
	"																		
	"																		
	"																		
	"																		
	CONTROL RISK TOTALS FOR JAN. 3	160	26	75		5	00	75	400	1	00						40	25	00

FIG. 46.—Cash receipts book.

Section 1 now becomes a regular store order and goes into the folio binder for the day's business under direct shipment. It is given a folio number and is made ready for posting in the usual way. Later, when invoices arrive from the firms who have delivered direct to the store, they are checked against this section to ascertain their correctness.

Suppose that all sections of the daily report sheet have been checked and figured, and duly prepared for the bookkeeping entries to follow:

1. Cash receipts book (see Fig. 46).

2. Postings from this cash receipts book are now made as follows:

1. See (2) (page 292) for ledger page on store No. 35.
2. Expense postings.

Control—Direct Retail Store Expense							P. 400
Date				Date			
Jan. 3	c-61		1.00				

Store No. 35 Direct Expense							P. 435
Date				Date			
Jan. 3	c-61		1.00				

Three other control accounts should be filled in:

Cash Sales of Retail Outlets							P. 100
Date			Date				
			1–3	c-61	Sales	$26.75	

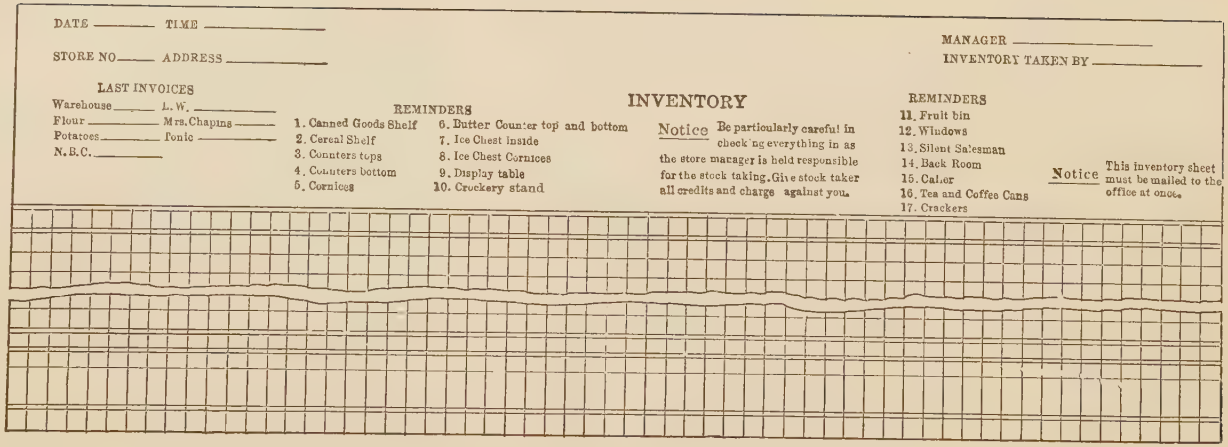
Mdse. Purchases by Cash Direct Stores							P. 300
Date				Date			
1–3	c-61		.75				

Cash							P. 40
Date				Date			
1–3	c-61		$25.00				

The next step in the accounting procedure involves the periodic inventory for the retail stores (see Fig. 47). The superintendent and his assistants drop in at a store without warning and take a physical inventory. This is then sent to the central office and figured at retail by the clerks. When figured, it is turned over to the bookkeeper for entry on the store's account. If all figuring were perfectly accurate and no dishonesty or mistakes occurred on the part of store managers, the inventory amount should correspond to the balance on this store account.

In practice, of course, this never actually occurs. Journal entries must be made to equalize difference between book retail inventories and physical retail inventories.

Assume that on the morning of January 4, before any retail sales are made, an inventory of store No. 35 is taken. When



DATE _____ TIME _____

STORE NO. _____ ADDRESS _____

MANAGER _____

INVENTORY TAKEN BY _____

LAST INVOICES

Warehouse _____ L. W. _____
Flour _____ Mrs. Chapins _____
Potatoes _____ Tonic _____
N. B. C. _____

REMINDERS

1. Canned Goods Shelf
2. Cereal Shelf
3. Counters tops
4. Counters bottom
5. Cornices
6. Butter Counter top and bottom
7. Ice Chest inside
8. Ice Chest Cornices
9. Display table
10. Crockery stand

INVENTORY

Notice Be particularly careful in check ng everything in as the store manager is held responsible for the stock taking. Give stock taker all credits and charge against you.

REMINDERS

11. Fruit bin
12. Windows
13. Silent Salesman
14. Back Room
15. Cal.or
16. Tea and Coffee Cans
17. Crackers

Notice This inventory sheet must be mailed to the office at once.

FIG. 47*A*.—Inventory sheet (front).

Book Inventory Charges			INVENTORY	Book Inventory Credits			Statement from Store Receiving Book CHARGES			Statement of Store Credits		
Inventory Beginning of Month	AM'T		Store No.	Sales to Date	AM'T		DATE	State clearly whether Groceries, Produce, Crackers, Allowances	AM'T	DATE	State clearly whether, Cash, Rdcs., Credit, Reductions, Special, etc.	AM'T
Warehouse Shipment			Address	Reductions								
Direct Shipment			Manager	Special Sale Reductions								
Cash Purchases			Taken by	Journal Credits								
Journal Charges			Assisted by	Sundries								
Advances			Date From To									
			Received in office									
			Date Time									
			Figured by									
			Refigured by									
			O'Kd									
			Date Time									
			Physical Inventory									
			Book Inventory									
Total Charges			Over (black ink)	Total Credits								
			Short (red ink)									
			BOOK INVENTORY									
			Summary Charges									
			Summary Credits									
			balance									
			Book Inventory									

FIG. 47*B*.—Inventory sheet (back).

figured, this inventory amounts to $67.65. The bookkeeper would then put the inventory sheet in a permanent file, giving it a number. This, then, becomes the voucher for the subsequent entry on the books on ledger page 142 (see (2), page 292). This being the ideal case, the book balance and the physical inventory agree.

If, now, the management wants to know the profit on the business of store No. 35, it can get a close estimate by taking the difference between the Mem. debit and credit columns for profit on the store's ledger page, and getting the percentage of this figure to the net total merchandise charges for the month. This will give the percentage of gross profit on sales for the month.

After the store has been running for some time, it will be found that physical inventories from month to month are approximately the same. For this reason the percentage of gross profit or net shipments per store per month is substantially accurate for the gross profit on net retail sales.

In order to arrive at the net direct retail revenue per store per month, the direct store expense account is deducted from the amount of gross profit (arrived at as above). Similarly, to arrive at the cost value of the retail store's inventory in making up monthly reports of condition, a close approximation can be had by deducting the same percentage of gross profit from the retail value of the inventory as figured.

The profit on shipments of merchandise to the retail stores for the business as a whole can be taken as the gross profit for the entire chain, thus largely disregarding the retail inventories. But it will be found, as stated above, that, after retail outlets are once established, the total retail store inventories for the entire organization are, in the aggregate, about the same, from month to month. From control accounts, therefore, the monthly merchandise statement for the business can be accurately prepared without considering the retail inventories.

The result would be for a chain, such as has been described, as follows:

Retail value, shipments of merchandise to retail outlets	$.....	
Cost	.....	
Gross profits on		$.....
Retail store expense (direct)	$.....	
Net retail revenue		$.....
Warehouse	$.....	
Office and management	.....	
Fixed charges	.....	
Miscellaneous expenses	.....	
Total overhead expense carried by retail outlets		$.....
Net profit for the company on shipments to retail outlets		$.....
Sales direct from warehouse[1]	$.....	
Cost on sales from warehouse	.....	
Net profit on sales direct from warehouse		.....
Aggregate earnings of the company		$.....

[1] Since wholesaling is not a regular business of the firm, its profits are treated simply as an additional revenue without bearing an allocation of general overhead burden. This is logical because so little expense is involved in making these direct sales.

Conclusions.—This chapter considers the retail store solely from the point of view of the central management. From this point of view, therefore, the branch store is like a private soldier in the army. It must be taken care of, its wants must be administered to, and, like the soldier, it must submit to discipline.

The problem, as its presents itself to the store manager, was discussed in a previous chapter. Here, the sole purpose is to make clear the routine of supervision exercised by the central office in two ways: by personal inspection, and by daily and other reports. If the process seems long and unduly complicated, it must be remembered that this system of accounting must serve as eyes and ears to the chief executive. A store to him is not a personality, it is a link in a chain, and he wants to know whether it is a strong link or a weak one.

It is not claimed that the system for policing and accounting supervision outlined in this chapter is the best or even better than others which have been developed. But to the small chain proprietor, or any retail store owner who desires to branch out with other retail outlets, this chapter should give some definite ideas.

CHAPTER XVIII

CENTRALIZING EXECUTIVE CONTROL

Outline

Information needed by executive:

1. Concerning purchasing and warehousing:
   (*a*) The stock of merchandise:
      (1) Adequate supply.
      (2) Items short.
   (*b*) Condition of warehouse inventory and merchandise account
2. Concerning central offices:
   (*a*) Accuracy and up-to-dateness of accounting statistics.
   (*b*) Billing clerk routine.
3. Concerning retail outlets:
   (*a*) Cash sales of each store.
   (*b*) Warehouse shipments to each store.
   (*c*) Profit shown by each store.
   (*d*) Character of orders from each store.
   (*e*) Condition of retail inventories.

Characteristics of executive reports:

1. Brief:
   (*a*) Material concentrated, if possible, on one page.
2. Up-to-date:
   (*a*) Preferably for preceding day:
      (1) To catch trouble at its inception.

The daily executive report:

1. Cash sales.
2. Daily cash balance in banks.
3. Net operations retail, cost, and profit.
4. Shortage report.
5. Routine necessary to follow to get information.

Weekly executive report:

1. Commonly retail cash sales report:
   (*a*) Comparison of sales this week with same week last year.
   (*b*) Total for month this year and last.
2. Connecting link between daily and monthly reports:
   (*a*) Indicate course of turnover and sales.

Monthly executive report:

1. Compiled almost entirely from books of account.
2. Control account for:
   (*a*) Direct retail store expense.
   (*b*) Indirect retail store expense.
3. Report gives statement of condition for use in:
   (*a*) Administration.
   (*b*) Correction.
   (*c*) Planning.

Comparison reports:

1. Formulated at specific periods.
2. Compare sales, profits, expenses, etc.

Annual report:

1. Contains:
   (*a*) Balance sheet.
   (*b*) Income account.
   (*c*) Expense statement.
2. Serves as final link in executive control.

CHAPTER XVIII

CENTRALIZING EXECUTIVE CONTROL

By John S. Fleek

It is necessary to coordinate and combine all the separate activities and functions of the chain. The executive cannot be bothered with detail. He will not gain the benefits of these methods of better administration unless the information collected at various points is concentrated at one place, in approved reports and at specified times.

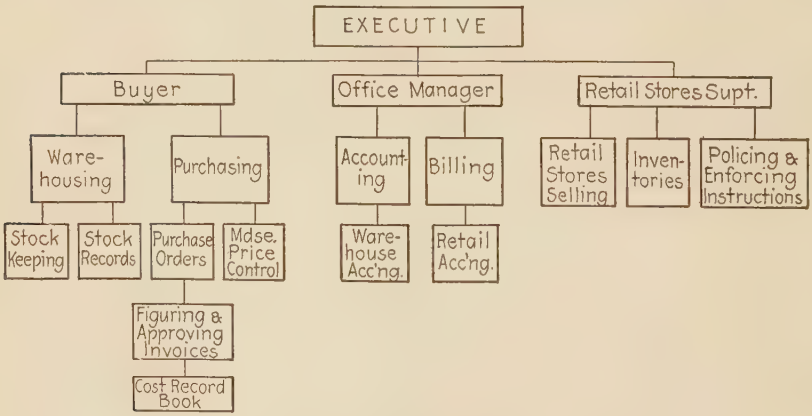


Fig. 48.—Route of statistical information for executive.

It is true that personal foresight at offices, warehouses, and branches cannot be dispensed with by a mere impersonal substitution of routine methods. But, in order that the chief executive may exert his force at the right time and place, such a routine collection of data in the form of reports is almost necessary.

Sources of information for necessary reports for the executive come ordinarily through three channels: the buyer, the office manager, and the superintendent of retail stores. These offices

may, in some chains, be divided or given different terms, but the idea remains the same. The executive must have information obtained from purchases and inventories, finance and accounting, and retail sales by branch stores. Figure 48 shows the progress of information and how definitely the route for each item of statistical data can be traced from the bottom of the organization to the top.

What Information to Get.—The information for executive consumption which it is advisable and easy to compile appears under the following heads:

1. Warehousing and purchasing:
   (*a*) Is the stock of merchandise being kept up?
   (*b*) If not, what items are "going short" on orders?
   (*c*) What is the condition of the warehouse merchandise account, warehouse inventory, etc.?
2. Central offices:
   (*a*) Are the bill clerks keeping the work up-to-date?
   (*b*) Is the accounting department keeping the work up-to-date?
3. Retail:
   (*a*) What is the standing of each store in cash sales?
   (*b*) What is each store doing in warehouse shipments?
   (*c*) What profit is each store making?
   (*d*) What number of orders are coming back from each store?
   (*e*) Are profits large enough to carry overhead?
   (*f*) What is the condition of retail inventories?

Executive daily reports should, in general, concentrate all essential data on not more than one page. Such reports, when handed to the executive, give him a convenient and portable brief of the condition of his business in all its ramifications. Moreover, a report, to be really effective, must be up to the minute in the information it contains. It should readily reveal any maladministration. It should pave the way for future plans. For this reason, if a daily report arrives four or five days late, much of its constructive and corrective force is lost, for the evil it presents and emphasizes for correction has probably by that time ceased to be so obtrusively evident.

Daily and weekly reports, therefore, should come to the executive's desk on the day following that for which the figures are entered. Monthly and other periodic reports should be presented within five or six days after the end of the month. Annual

reports naturally take longer to compile, but they certainly should be completed during the 30 days following the end of the fiscal year.

The Daily Executive Report.—The daily executive report, appearing on the chief executive's desk by the forenoon of the day following that upon which the report is made, gives the brief outline of the course of business during the previous day. From these the executive not only gets a line on his retail stores, the buying, and the accounting department but he knows also that his office force is keeping its costing and pricing, extending, and billing up-to-date. Otherwise the figures under "shipments," and "direct credits" could not be entered.

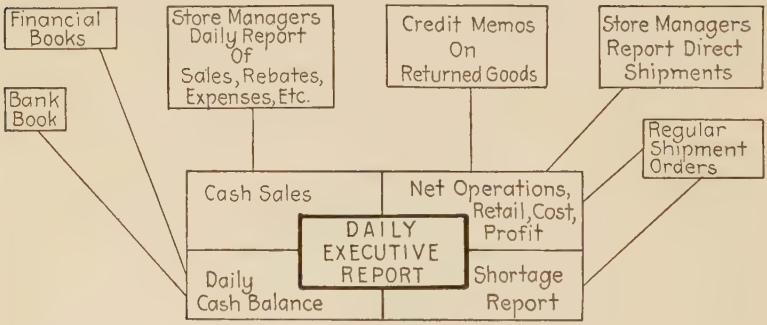


Fig. 49.—Process of making up daily executive report.

Figure 49 shows the procedure required in obtaining the information for the daily executive report as it is made up from the other detailed reports. It shows how the daily cash balance is found by consulting the bank book and the financial books, how cash sales are taken from the daily report of the store managers, etc. By studying this diagram, the apparently intricate processes of coordinating and concentrating accounts become far simpler.

Figure 50 shows one form of daily executive report. This form is made up as follows: As soon as the warehouse shipments on regular retail store order blanks, the direct shipments from store managers' reports, and the credit memos are figured and extended, the order clerks enter the totals for each store in the

appropriate columns and give the algebraic sum (warehouse shipments plus direct minus credits) for the net operations of the day.

EXECUTIVE REPORT

DAY_____
DATE

STORE	PD. OUT		TOTAL CASH SALES	SHIPMENTS		DIRECT CREDITS				NET OPERATIONS		
	EXP.	MDS		COST	RETAIL	COST	RETAIL	COST	RETAIL	COST	RETAIL	PROFIT
1												
2												
3												
4												
29												
30												
TOTALS												

Fig. 50.—Daily executive report form.

DAY_____
DATE_____

EXECUTIVE REPORT

DAILY CASH STATEMENT

FOR BANKS	NAT'L	UNION	CITY	TOTAL BANKS	CASH
OLD BAL					OLD BAL
DEPOSIT					STORE RECEIPTS
TOTAL					OTHER RECEIPTS
CHECKS					TOTAL
NEW BAL.					PD. MDSE.
					PD. EXP.
					PD. OTHER
					NEW BAL.
INITIALS					

SHORTAGE

Fig. 51.—Daily cash statement.

One clerk then goes through the warehouse shipment order blanks and lists, under shortage, on the reverse side of the report, the articles (quantity and retail value) which the shipping clerk has marked "short," *i.e.*, he has been unable to fill the order because the articles asked for are out of stock.

The clerks now send the report to the bookkeeper, who enters the amount of cash sales from the figures compiled from the store managers' daily reports. Next he enters the daily cash balance figures on the reverse side of the executive report (Fig. 51). The report is then complete and ready for the executive. Entries on the report are initialed by the clerks making them. The report can be conveniently placed on three-ring binder paper and kept for permanent record.

Thus, the executive has before him daily in a convenient, compact form a summary of his business and an effective check on its functions. The buyer is checked by the shortage report, the accounting department is checked by the daily cash balance, and the retail outlets are checked by the detailed information on the first page of the report.

The Weekly Report.—Chains vary widely in executive accounting control, not so much in the information desired, but rather

REPORT OF RETAIL CASH SALES

WEEKLY FOR THE MONTH OF _____ 192____

STORE NO.	COMPARISIONS		WEEKLY CASH SALES						TOTAL CASH SALES CURRENT MONTH
	THIS MONTH IN 192__	QUOTA CURRENT MONTH	—TO—	—TO—	—TO—	—TO—	—TO—	—TO—	
1									
2									
3									
12									
TOTAL									
WAREHOUSE									
AGGREGATE TOTAL									

FIG. 52.—Weekly cash sales report.

in the frequency with which it is desired and the completeness of the detail called for on the executive report. Generally, it is not considered necessary to include any information on weekly reports except that dealing with cash sales. If the other items are not important enough to be listed daily, they can usually be put off until the monthly report.

Figure 46 illustrates a common form of retail cash sales report to be filled in and submitted weekly. It is found convenient to consolidate this weekly report on one sheet for the current

month and with the figures accumulating week by week. Figures for current weeks are compiled direct from the daily executive reports and put on three-ring binder pages for the executive control report book.

As a guide and as a comparison, the first column shows sales for the same month last year, and the second column the quota or mark set for the month this year. The subsequent six columns are for the weekly records of sales and the final column gives the total for the month.

Six columns are given in order to provide for such a month as October, 1921, beginning on a Saturday and ending on a Monday. Weeks are taken as beginning when the month begins and running until the next Saturday or until the end of the month. For example, two of the weeks reported for October, 1921, will contain but one business day.

This cash report gives the chief executive information as to the volume of business his retail outlets are doing, in a desirable form; and in sufficient detail to give him the connecting link between daily and monthly reports, which go more minutely into particulars. These consolidations enable him to ascertain what steps need to be taken immediately to force more sales and a greater turnover, at any one point or throughout his organization.

The Monthly Report.—The monthly report provides a complete analysis and statement of the operations and conditions of business. It gives an operating statement in detail; and moreover combines all this information in a concise form on the two sides of a single sheet of the same standard three-ring binder paper for the executive's control report book. The form (see Figs. 53 and 54) is almost self-explanatory, and is compiled almost entirely from the books of account, although it is possible to check the daily and weekly reports against it.

The cash sales give the needed comparison with profits, years, and quotas, as well as with the volume of shipments appearing in the columns to the right. The inventory column serves to show the turnover of each store. Direct expense is seen on the reverse side (Fig. 54) and is that part of the operating expense which can be chargeable directly to the individual store. It is well to keep this separate from the other entries of expense or overhead; for it might be advisable sometimes to maintain

a store that was doing only a little better than making its direct, or, as they say in railroading, "out-of-pocket expense" and contributing a small amount towards making the total overhead. Though showing a net loss after deducting its ratio of overhead,

EXECUTIVE REPORT FOR MONTH OF _____ 192_____

STORE No.	CASH SALES: SALES FOR MONTH — 192—	QUOTA THIS MONTH	CURRENT SALES NET	GAIN OR LOSS	PHYSICAL INVENTORIES: DATE	AMT	MERCHANDISE—SHIPMENT—OPERATIONS: AT RETAIL	GROSS BOOK PROFIT: AMT	%	DIRECT EXPENSE	DIRECT RETAIL REVENUE	OVERHEAD ALLOCATED AT — %	NET BOOK OPERATING PROFIT	%
1														
2														
11														
12														
TOTAL														
WAREHOUSE														
AGG.TOTAL														

INCOME STATEMENT		BALANCE SHEET			
AGGREGATE BOOK PROFIT NET		OFFICE CASH		COMMON STOCK	
DISCOUNTS EARNED		BANK CASH		PREFERRED STOCK	
SUNDRY REVENUES NET		ACCT'S REC'D		SURPLUS	
WAREHOUSES		NOTES REC'D		UNDIVIDED PROFITS	
MARK-UP		EQUIPMENT		CURRENT PROFIT LOSS	
MARK-DOWN		STORE FIXTURES		ACC'TS PAYABLE	
CURRENT BOOK PROFIT AND LOSS		WAREHOUSE FIXTURES		NOTES PAYABLE	
WAREHOUSE MDSE BOOK RECORDS		OFFICE FIXTURES		OTHER LIABILITIES	
INV. BEGINNING MONTH		WAREHOUSE INV.			
PURCHASES AT BILLED COST		RETAIL STORES INV.			
FREIGHT ON PURCHASES		AT COST			
TOTAL		STOCKS & BONDS			
LESS SHIPMENTS OUT AT COST		OTHER ASSETS			
BOOK INV. END OF MONTH					
SHORTAGE TOTAL					
SALVAGE ACC'T FOR MONTH					
		TOTAL ASSETS		TOTAL LIABILITIES	

FIG. 53.—Monthly executive report.

such a store assists by increasing purchasing power, or, perhaps, by initiating business for the company in a new and heavily competitive locality.

Thus, there must be a control account for direct retail store expense and one for indirect retail store expense. The expense

DETAILED EXPENSE STATEMENT, MONTH OF						
	MONTH		%	TO DATE		%
DIRECT RETAIL EXPENSE						
SALARIES, STORE MGRS.						
COMMISSIONS						
OTHER CLERK EXPENSE						
RENT						
MISC. DIRECT CHARGES						
TOTAL DIRECT RETAIL EXPENSE						
OVERHEAD BURDEN OR INDIRECT EXPENSE						
WAGES-RECEIVING, HANDLING, AND SHIPPING FORCES						
BOXES AND WRAPPING						
OUTWARD FREIGHT AND CARTAGE						
TOTAL, RECV'G, HANDL'G, SHIP'G EXPENSE						
SALARIES BUYERS						
OTHER BUYING EXPENSES						
TOTAL BUYING EXPENSE						
EXECUTIVES SALARIES						
OFFICE SALARIES						
POSTAGE AND OFFICE SUPPLIES						
TELEPHONE AND TELEGRAPH						
OTHER MANAGEMENT EXPENSES						
TOTAL M'GEM'NT AND OFFICE EXPENSES						
INTEREST						
RENT						
HEAT, LIGHT AND POWER						
TAXES						
INSURANCE						
REPAIRS OF EQUIPMENT						
DEPRECIATION OF EQUIPMENT						
TOTAL FIXED CHARGES						
MISCELLANEOUS EXPENSES						
LOSSES BY DEFALCATION						
ADVERTISING						
TOTAL OVERHEAD EXPENSE						
TOTAL AGGREGATE EXPENSE						
NET SHIPMENTS TO RETAIL OUTLETS						
GROSS BOOK PROFIT ON ABOVE						
LESS DIRECT RETAIL EXPENSE						
DIRECT RETAIL REVENUE						
LESS OVERHEAD EXPENSE						
NET BOOK RETAIL OPERATING PROFIT						
BOOK PROFIT ON WHOLESALE SALES						
AGGREGATE BOOK OPERATING PROFIT NET						

FIG. 54.—Monthly executive report (expense statement).

sections on the reverse page of the report give in detail the figures for direct and indirect expense.

This report, as made up, gives the executive an accurate statement of the situation each month and is in sufficient detail to give him adequate data for use in administration.

Figure 55 shows another form of monthly report used where the stock problem is more complicated than in the previous illustration. Here reports are made by departments, as well as

MONTHLY FOR THE YEAR —

COMPARATIVE NET BOOK PROFITS FROM RETAIL OPERATIONS

	STORE # 1		STORE # 2		STORE # 35		CURRENT TOTAL		LAST YEAR TOTAL	
	AM'T	%	AM'T	%	AM'T	%	AM'T	%	AM'T	%
JAN.										
FEB.										
TO DATE										
DEC.										
TOTAL										
LAST YEAR										
GAIN OR LOSS										

Fig. 55.—Monthly comparison form (by stores).

by totals. This statement combines comparisons with the actual figures for the month.

Comparative Statements.—In many chain organizations, comparative statements are compiled at specified periods, sometimes weekly, as shown previously, and also monthly and yearly. These statements may show sales, profits, expenses, or other items of interest regarding the stores and their relative standing from different merchandising aspects. Figure 55, for example, shows a form for comparing the net book profit from retail operations by months. Space, as will be noted, is left for reducing all figures to percentages, the form which makes it easiest for the executives to grasp comparisons.

Figure 56 shows another form for making annual comparison of sales, inventory, and turnover of the various stores.

It is apparent that figures such as these are of great importance to executives. They enable them to put a finger at once on all weak spots. If one store falls off in sales while other stores maintain a steady average, this fact shows up at once in the percentage column. The same is true of profits. Although the sales of two stores, in gross amounts, may come to the same figure, the net of profits of one may far outbalance the other and, again, these records should show clearly the reason for this deviation.

YEAR ——
COMPARATIVE RETAIL CASH SALES STATEMENT

	STORE # 1			STORE # 35			CURRENT TOTAL RETAIL			LAST YEAR TOTAL RETAIL		
JAN.	SALES	INV.	TURN.	SALES	INV.	TURN.	SALES	INV.	TURN.	SALES	INV.	TURN.
FEB.												
TO DATE												
DEC.												
TOTAL												
LAST YEAR												
GAIN OR LOSS												

FIG. 56.—Comparative retail cash sales statement.

The Annual Report.—Annual reports are similar to monthly reports. They can well include more detail and, of course, are the final figures for the fiscal period, being compiled after an actual physical inventory of the warehouse stock fixtures and equipment, with depreciation and losses charged off. Practically the same form for the annual report can be used as is used for the monthly report.

The necessary forms are:

1. Balance sheet.
2. Income account.
3. Expense statement.

The annual report comes to the executive as a final link in his system of executive control. It also furnishes the ordinary medium by which the results of the year's operations are made public to stockholders.

Conclusions.—By the means and methods that have been described, the chief executive should be able to put into force an efficient and intelligent administration; for he has first set up the proper methods, and the mechanics for doing the necessary routine; and he has then set up the system of reports which show him they are being carried out as he has prescribed.

Thus, warehousing and purchasing and the supervision of retail outlets are coordinated, and the chief executive, with a considerable degree of accurate knowledge, can exert his control and directing force on all parts of his organization effectively.

CHAPTER XIX

FINANCING AND GROWTH

Outline

Methods of financing:
1. New stores financed out of profits from old stores.
2. New stores financed by borrowing money.
3. Absorption of chains by reorganization.

Principles of growth:
1. Steady growth in stores regardless of financial or business conditions.
2. Steady increase in gross sales:
   (*a*) In organization.
   (*b*) In individual stores.
3. Constant widening of chain store field:
   (*a*) In articles sold.
   (*b*) In services rendered.

Net profits:
1. Do not increase proportionately with gross sales:
   (*a*) Large turnover allows smaller margin of profit.
2. Dividends more stable than in other classes of industrial stocks.
3. Bonus system allowing adjustment of wages to sales.

Capitalization:
1. Ordinary form:
   (*a*) Issue of 7 per cent preferred stock.
   (*b*) Issue of no-par-value common stock.
   (*c*) Very seldom a bond issue:
      (1) Provision for retiring with sinking fund.

Normal growth of chain organization:
1. Single store.
2. Slow growth store by store:
   (*a*) Gradual evolvement of organization.
   (*b*) Formation of operating routine.
3. More rapid growth:
   (*a*) Caused by:
      (1) Increased economies:
         In purchasing.
         Merchandising.
      (2) Increased profits:
         More stores.
         Better operated stores.

(3) Cumulative effect of territorial expansion.

4. Combination and stock increase.

Distribution of stock:

1. Old policy of keeping control in small number of stockholders.
2. New policy of selling stock to customers.

Methods of selling stock:

1. Through underwriting house:
   (*a*) Necessitates size and distribution on part of chain.
2. Through local broker or direct sales or both.

Financial advertising:

1. Should show present prosperity:
   (*a*) Net sales.
   (*b*) Safety.
   (*c*) Earnings and dividends.
2. Statement of future prospects:
   (*a*) Reasons for wisdom of purchase.

CHAPTER XIX

CHAIN STORE FINANCING AND GROWTH

One of the remarkable aspects of chain store development is the smoothness with which all financial difficulties have been surmounted. The reason is not far to seek. Most chain systems have done their own financing out of profits. It has rarely been necessary to go to Wall Street for funds.

There are actually three ways in which a chain can finance its natural expansion:

1. Finance new stores out of own profits.
2. Finance by borrowing money.
3. Absorption of other chains by reorganization and exchange of stock, or some other means not requiring new capital.

A chain of retail stores is unlike a manufacturing business, in that the chain rarely has an inventory over its actual and immediate needs. Thus, its expansion in times of depression is in some cases as rapid, and even more rapid, than it is in times of great business activity. Since the chains deal in staple articles, much more so than the department stores and the mail-order houses, their earnings do not show such fluctuations. They have financial stability in that they can be counted on to earn a profit regardless of general business conditions throughout the country.

The above statements are subject to some qualification. In 1920, for example, one of the large dry goods chains carried so large an inventory as to wipe out its entire profits on $52,800,000 of business, showing a net loss of $300,000. Its policy of expansion was curtailed, although it was able to regain its position in 1921.

In brief, although it is inadvisable to overexpand in the face of a period of depression, still the chain stores, as a rule, are better equipped to weather such storms than are most businesses.

In passing, it is noteworthy that times of depression are opportune ones for obtaining leaseholds.

The question of finance is inextricably connected with the progress of the various chains. To understand the problems of financing, it is necessary to review the progress made by the chains during the last few years and the financial principles along which that progress has been conducted. The larger chains only are considered for the sake of convenience, and also because they are better known to the public.

The Principles of Chain Store Growth.—Certain phenomena may be observed about the growth of chain stores:

1. Growth has been steady in spite of financial or business conditions.
2. Gross sales have increased in volume in spite of depression.
3. There has been a constant widening of the articles and services marketed through chains of retail stores.
4. Although methods of organization have been different, only those chains have succeeded which have remained true to the fundamental principles of chain store operation, as outlined previously in this book.

No one has been able to estimate, even with approximate exactness, the number of chains in the United States or the number of stores operated by these chains. Only in a few lines has there been any census made, such as in the drug and grocery fields. And, as the number of chains is increasing rapidly every year, the attempt to enumerate them is hardly worth while, lacking definite figures. It suffices to say that the chain store in the last decade has made enormous strides, not only in the number of new chains, but more remarkably in the increased volume of sales in the old chains. As an example, consider the larger chains in the United States and compare their sales over the last seven years.

The ten chains, the gross sales of which over a period of years are tabulated in the table on page 319, are among the largest in the country. Three of the ten are grocery chains, four five-and-ten-cent store chains, two department store chains, and one a tobacco chain.

Since 1915, the gross sales of the Great Atlantic & Pacific Tea Company have increased from $44,441,199 to $302,888,369 in 1923, or approximately sevenfold. During this same length of

Annual Sales

Company	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922	1923
Great Atlantic & Pacific Tea Company	$44,441,199	$76,430,565	$126,691,919	$151,691,919	$194,646,949	$235,302,877	$202,433,531	$246,940,873	$302,888,369
F. W. Woolworth Company	75,995,774	87,089,270	98,102,858	107,180,986	119,491,033	140,918,981	147,654,647	167,319,265	193,447,010
May Department Stores Company	23,309,802	33,404,866	35,631,660	41,179,261	57,962,444	68,254,715	58,981,639	61,685,253	90,997,655
S. S. Kresge Company	20,943,300	26,396,000	30,090,700	36,309,514	42,668,152	51,245,311	55,859,011	65,191,467	81,843,233
Kroger Grocery & Baking Company	12,555,719	23,342,367	25,851,250	34,550,000	34,550,000	50,705,896	44,851,402	53,735,563	74,339,108
United Cigar Stores Company	31,038,846	35,822,985	42,193,406	52,037,747	61,874,053	80,040,000	78,000,000	73,961,981	74,208,878
J. C. Penney Company	4,825,000	8,415,000	14,880,000	21,336,000	28,783,965	42,846,008	46,641,921	49,035,729	62,188,979
S. H. Kress Company	12,249,590	15,059,683	17,633,100	21,160,111	25,244,131	28,973,847	28,908,985	30,646,938	34,005,464
Jones Brothers Tea	10,905,380	11,077,950	13,252,060	15,832,699	22,231,382	22,743,098	21,889,048	24,203,540	31,368,545
McCrory Stores Corporation	5,613,988	6,787,117	7,831,509	9,607,251	11,487,046	14,199,346	14,406,404	17,123,253	21,367,824

time, the volume of sales of the J. C. Penney Company has grown from $4,825,000 to $62,188,979, or about thirteen times.

What is happening in the large chains whose sales reports are shown here is happening in thousands of small chains whose member stores are yet too few to mount up to large proportions of gross sales.

Earnings and Dividends.—With few exceptions, chain stores have been able to earn dividends, not only upon their preferred stock but also upon the common. The ordinary form of capitalization seems to be an issue of 7 per cent preferred stock and a certain number of shares of common, no par value. Some chains have sold their stock at $10 a share to secure wider distribution among the public.

Few chains have any bonded indebtedness and net profits can be applied almost entirely to meeting the demands of stockholders, although it must be remembered that a chain company needs a certain amount of capital for new enterprises during the year and this capital is taken out of earnings rather than borrowed, and the amount added to the funded debt.

The following tabulation compares net profits earned on the common stock of two large mail-order companies and several of the larger chain store systems. The comparison includes the period of the major price fluctuation following the war.

EARNINGS ON COMMON STOCK

	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922	1923	
Sears, Roebuck	$16.19	$ 24.44	$10.65	nil	$ 4.88	$10.95	
Montgomery Ward	12.77	2.59	nil	nil	2.44	4.83	
F. W. Woolworth	9.96	17.11	13.87	$20.04	27.11	31.84	($7.96 on basis of $25 par)
S. S. Kresge	15.61	21.40	26.14	20.26	35.52	38.11	
S. H. Kress	6.45	14.15	5.01	7.57	23.83	27.11	
McCrory Stores	5.25	7.69	10.98	9.99	15.06	4.05	(after retirement of preferred stock)
J. C. Penney	44.00	114.15	nil	25.14	53.61	12.33	
Jones Brothers Tea	1.01	2.14	nil	nil	1.34	nil	
United Cigar	11.48	15.17	14.34	11.51	12.30	13.51	

The two mail-order houses were badly affected by the depression of 1920 and 1921, both of them showing a deficit in the latter

year. Among the five-and-ten-cent stores, there is a uniform and healthy growth. This is particularly to be noted for the smaller Kress and McCrory chains, which in 1922 and 1923 showed big increases over preceding years. In 1923 the McCrory stores retired the preferred stock issue and still showed a profit on the common stock.

Chain store earnings and dividends show the following trends:

1. Net profits do not increase proportionately with increase in total sales. This is natural, since a larger turnover of goods allows the chain to operate on smaller margin of profit. In other words, the more sales are made the less money it is necessary to make on each purchase.

2. Dividends paid on chain store stocks do not show that general tendency to fluctuate in times of prosperity and depression which is evidenced by other industrial stocks. That is, the business of retailing on a large scale is more generally profitable than a manufacturing business.

3. The ordinary form of capitalization is an issue of 7 per cent preferred stock followed by an issue of no-par-value common stock. Few chains have any bond issues outstanding, and, if there are bonds, the general policy is to establish a sinking fund for their redemption as soon as possible.

4. The bonus system of recompensing employees allows a rapid reduction in labor expenditures whenever sales fall off for any reason whatsoever. In other lines of business this cannot be accomplished either so rapidly or so easily.

The Kresge Company.—To illustrate better this question of chain store financing, the S. S. Kresge Company has been taken as an example. The company started in business in 1897 with one store. In 1921 it had 198 stores, as far west as Lincoln, Neb., and as far south as Norfolk, Va. Sales, which were only $5,116,099 in 1909 increased to $55,859,011 in 1921. The margin of net profit has kept between 5.94 and 8.23 per cent. The company has made a phenomenal showing in net profits per store. In nine years it increased more than 147 per cent, from $7,872 in 1912 to $19,463 in 1920 (see Fig. 57). Average sales have advanced 123 per cent, or from $121,476 in 1912 to $271,139 in 1920.

The company has followed a policy of financing its expansion almost entirely out of earnings. During the development of the

Kresge chain, as with all chain stores following a policy of starting new stores, the old stores have to carry the burden. Thus, the reported profits on growing chains rarely show exactly how great an earning capacity the chain is capable of.

The company had one store in 1897, 42 in 1909, 84 in 1912, 157 in 1916, and 189 in 1920. In 1921, this number was raised to 198. In 1923 this had increased to 243. More than 80 per cent of the capital stock has come from reinvestment of surplus earnings. In 1916, when the company was reincorporated, the common stock was doubled and par value changed from $100 to $10. In 1917, the stock had so increased in value that part was changed back from $10 to $100 again. In June, 1920, common stock was increased to $20,000,000 and a note issue of $3,000,000 sold.

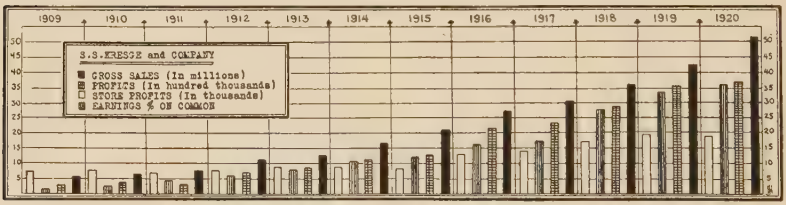


Fig. 57.—Gross sales, profits and earnings on common stock of S. S. Kresge Company. (*Financial World.*)

It is interesting to observe that profits per share of common have not decreased because of increasing the amount of common stock outstanding. They have, on the contrary, kept up at a steady rate of increase (with the exception of 1921).

This account of the financial growth of the Kresge Company has been included as a typical example of the method in which chain stores grow financially. The process seems to work out as follows:

1. A single store.

2. Idea of chain of stores. Slow growth over a period of years and gradual development of an organization and a system on which to operate.

3. Increased economies in purchasing, merchandising, etc. and increased profits (with the exception of 1921) allow more stores to be opened and territorial extension of operations. At this stage the chain may absorb other chains.

4. Increased capitalization of common stock to keep pace with development. Perhaps increased preferred stock issue to provide extra funds for further expansion.

Kingman Brewster, an authority on the legal aspects of chain store organization, makes the following comment:

> One of the most difficult problems in chain store or industrial financing is the financing of corporations whose assets are under half or three-quarters of a million dollars. Whoever solves the problem of financing the small business will make a very decided contribution to corporation finance. For the reason of necessity the chains in the early stages have financed their expansion out of earnings. However, I once heard F. W. Woolworth state that such a policy was inconsistent with a desire to obtain a nation-wide distribution within the lifetime of a single man, and that in his own case he had found it necessary to provide for stock issues (originally $50,000,000 common, $13,000,000 preferred) for the purpose of making his institution a national one.
>
> J. C. Penney has, I think, used only about $3,000,000 preferred stock, the rest of the financing being done out of earnings. However, his organization, local and administrative, permits of an expansion by what amounts to additional partnerships and is very unusual in chain store operations. Furthermore, it is apparent that the method of financing is very frequently dependent upon the form of corporate organization, and the problem has been to find a method of transition from the business doing five or ten million dollars to a corporate form of organization which would permit of financing a business to do twenty-five millions or more. The obtaining of this change without disrupting the administrative organization is the problem upon which all growing chain organizations are working.

Chain Expansion from the Financial Standpoint.—The first method of expansion, as previously mentioned in the first part of this chapter, is to provide the necessary funds from current earnings of stores already in operation. Such a policy is entirely in line with the inherent conservative idea pursued by chain store organizations in general. By financing a new store out of accumulated cash surplus, there is no heavy overhead charge under which the new store must struggle. All the expenses incident to starting the new branch are already arranged for, and paid before the store opens.

This, of course, does not apply where stores finance themselves. For example, where each store is operated as a separate corpora-

tion, it frequently borrows on its improved real estate and obligates itself to pay off the loan out of earnings. This may take five to ten years, but it means, of course, that the earnings of the local business go into the capital assets.

The method of financing out of earnings, though it is safe, is slow, and men with vision, anxious to succeed, and sure of the soundness of their principles and methods wish to take short cuts. That is, they wish to borrow the capital from Wall Street or directly from the public. In other words, they wish to float stock, generally preferred, to the public, in order that they may the quicker get a large number of stores into actual operation. This may be accomplished by combining with another chain not by purchase but by affiliation, as was the case with the present components of the Woolworth chain. It may be necessary to buy out other chains, and such a sudden drain on the exchequer may make it necessary to seek financial help outside the company.

In the Penney chain, each new store is financed on a partnership basis. In other chains special policies are pursued in opening new stores, although in each case the central organization furnishes all the capital. It is impossible to lay down any rules for financing other than those which govern the money market in general. The great advantage of the chains has always been that they did not find it necessary to borrow money when money was high. Another point in their favor is that ordinarily there is no large inventory to finance in periods of declining prices. The best insurance for the future is the amount of cash in banks.

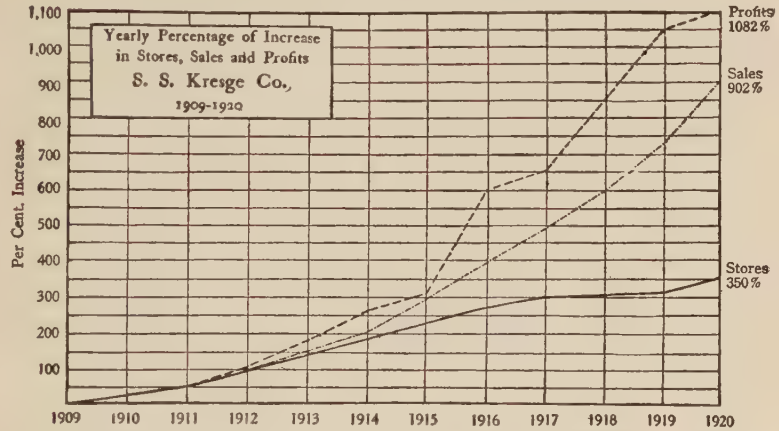
Distribution of Stock.—Some chain organizations, in spite of their size, have always kept the control of the company in comparatively few hands. For example, this policy has been traditional with the Great Atlantic & Pacific Tea Company, and with the Singer Sewing Machine Company. Both these companies have pursued a policy of expansion without borrowing, and this explains the small distribution of the stock.

Other companies—and the number of this latter class is growing more numerous—like to have the stock distributed as widely as possible among the public, and especially the public which purchases their goods. For this purpose the par value of

S. S. Kresge Company

Detroit, Mich.

Operating a chain of 199 stores selling merchandise at prices ranging from 5 cents to $1.00



	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920
Sales		$6,508,752		$10,325,487		$16,097,511		$26,396,544		$36,309,513		$51,245,311
Profits before war taxes		408,957		669,179		1,150,497		2,172,348		2,950,999		3,677,506
Stores		51		85		118		157		170		189

The above Chart shows the growth of the S. S. Kresge Company since 1909. The sales for the first eleven months of the current year were reported at $47,171,803 against $43,421,735 for 1920. The repeal of the excess profits tax is expected to be of great benefit to this company.

Stockholders of record as of December 16th, 1921, will receive on December 31st, 1921, a cash dividend of 3% and a stock dividend of 54%.

The 1921 edition of our Kresge pamphlet may be had on application. The information contained therein, based on official data and original research, may be considered authoritative and should be of interest to investors and business men.

Send for Circular D-128

Merrill, Lynch & Company

Investment Securities

120 Broadway New York

Uptown Office, 11 East 43rd Street

CHICAGO
105 So. La Salle St.

DETROIT
Penobscot Building

MILWAUKEE
First Wisconsin Nat'l. Bank Bldg.

DENVER
206 U. S. Nat'l. Bank Bldg.

LOS ANGELES
I. N. Van Nuys Bldg.

Members of the New York, Chicago, Detroit and Cleveland Stock Exchanges

All statements herein are based on information which we regard as reliable, but we do not guarantee them.

FIG. 58.—Advertisement of chain store securities.

the stock is often put at $10, so that distribution among small stockholders may be even wider. The psychology of this, of course, is that owners of stock in a certain chain will purchase goods there rather than somewhere else.

When a chain store wishes to sell stock, it has two alternatives:

1. It may go to a responsible broker and pay him a certain amount for underwriting the stock.
2. It may try to sell the stock directly to its customers.

If a chain store stock issue is to be floated from Wall Street, the issue of stock must be large. The underwriters do not care to handle anything small. It would not pay them to set in motion the machinery for selling stock on a large scale, the newspaper campaigns in various cities, the syndicate members, etc. There are two requisites for floating a chain store stock issue from New York:

1. The chain must be large.
2. The chain must be national or at least sectional.

A chain of stores is known only in the localities where it sells goods. A manufacturing plant is known far and wide over the country because of the wide distribution of its products.

Figure 58 shows the method which Merrill, Lynch & Company used to put before the public the advantages of the S. S. Kresge stock. The graphic method has been employed to show the enormous growth in profits and sales compared with the comparatively smaller growth in number of stores operated.

If a chain, which is local and comparatively small, wishes to distribute its stock, it may call in a local broker or else attempt to float the stock itself. The stock, of course, must be floated mainly in the district where the stores are operated, because it is difficult to sell stock where the company is not known.

It is, of course, a broker's function not only to dispose of stock for the purpose of adding new capital to a chain organization, but also to maintain a liquid market for the securities. In this respect a corporation which has a large number of stockholders is in a much safer position than where the distribution of stock is localized. There is, as is pointed out in this chapter, the additional interest of the stockholder in the business with which he deals.

If a chain decides to sell its own stock, and this is frequently the case, it can be handled either by a mail-order campaign to customers of the chain or by combining this method with advertising.

Financial Advertising.—Many small investors in chain organizations never would have gone to an investment house for their stock. They invest in the chain securities because they are personally acquainted with its activities and can see for themselves the business done. Therefore, a frequent and sound investment argument is that the dividends from savings invested in chain store stock will help to pay for purchases. It is the same argument which was so successful in selling the stock of the American Telephone & Telegraph Company.

There are certain things a chain should show in financial publicity matter:

1. The prosperity of the chain at present. In this category come net sales for the year as compared with past years and the same for net earnings. Next there should be mention of dividend rate at present and in the past, and some statement of the security of the income and the investment.

2. The future prospects of the chain and a concise statement of why this stock is being offered for sale.

Figure 59 shows an advertisement appearing in the local newspapers in districts served by the Waldorf System, Incorporated. An analysis of this advertisement discloses the following facts:

1. Why customers purchase Waldorf stock.
2. The size of the chain and its volume of business.
3. The results of customers' owning stock and the value to the chain and the customer.
4. The safety of the investment.
5. Net earnings.
6. Dividends paid.

Conclusions.—As the chain systems grow in size, the problem of financing becomes more serious. There is an increasing tendency to distribute securities among the public, as has been done by the National Department Stores, the J. C. Penney Company, the large five-and-ten-cent chains, the United Cigar Stores Company, and others. The amount of capital stock outstanding

Why I Want Waldorf Customers to Share in Our Profits

There are hundreds of people eating daily at the Waldorf Lunches who, every three months, are paid back by the Waldorf the money they spent in the meantime for their lunches. They have found one of the most profitable methods of reducing the cost of living.

They are the men and women who have put their savings in the common stock of the Waldorf System, Inc., and own enough shares so that the dividends they have received pay for their lunches the year around.

I am taking this method of talking to our thousands of patrons, as a great many of them are not investors, or are not in touch with investment houses, and are therefore not likely to know what, an unusually safe and profitable investment the common stock of the Waldorf System, Inc., is.

Many of our customers, for instance, do not know that the Waldorf System, Inc., is now one of the largest chains of lunch rooms in the country, spreading over seven States—that it is growing faster than any other chain—that there are now 89 restaurants in 28 different cities—that *every day* about $30,000 is taken in in *cash* sales—that although less than two cents is made on the average meal of 30 cents, the vast volume of 36,000,000 meals a year enabled the Company to pay substantial dividends to owners of Waldorf common stock last year

Why do I want more of our customers to become owners of our common stock? For much the same reason that every employee in the service of the Waldorf System, Inc, through a profit-sharing plan, participates in the profits of this System, down to the fellows that scrub the floors. Nothing pays so well as taking employees and the public into partnership, so to speak For one of the reasons you receive more prompt and courteous service in a Waldorf Lunch is because the man serving you feels the pride and responsibility of being something more than a salaried employee.

For instance, you, as a Waldorf customer buy some of its common stock, and thereby become a part owner You now feel more at home, eating in a restaurant in which you have an owner's interest. You take an interest in everything going on. If you notice some lapse in the courteous service or high standard of cleanliness of the Waldorf Lunches, you report it at once to the management. You will probably be giving us some idea of how a little improvement might be made, as other customer stockholders have You become a messenger of good will. For, while, previously, you would tell a friend casually of the good things to eat at a Waldorf Lunch, you now, as an owner, naturally go out of your way to spread the good news of better food. Your interest brings Waldorf more and more business—because it is bringing business to *yourself* You are not satisfied unless other customers are satisfied—and that spirit helps us in pleasing the 36,000,000 people we serve in a year.

Before we thus publicly invited our customers to become part owners of Waldorf Lunches through purchase of shares of the common stock, we wanted the most positive evidence to show the public how safe and profitable such an investment would be—proof that any man or woman could understand. We now have it.

During the last year Dun's reported 8881 business failures in the United States. Practically everybody knows that many of the largest corporations in the country had to cut off their dividends during the business depression, and that many of them closed down entirely. Yet, since April, 1919, the Waldorf System, Inc., has enjoyed such prosperity that it increased the number of its lunch rooms from 59 to 89—a 50% increase

The net earnings for 1919 were at the rate of $385,467 a year Although the increased costs of provisions reduced the Company's profits per meal during 1920, the new restaurants acquired and the large increase in the volume of business with careful, efficient management, enabled the company to show net earnings at the rate of $626,703 for 1920.

In 1919 dividends on the common stock were at the rate of 10% per year, cash dividend. In the year just closed, 1920, there were a cash dividend of 10% and two stock dividends of 5% each Based on the present outlook, I can see no reason why future earnings should not equal or exceed past earnings.

This company—nor any of its officers—has no common stock to sell It may be purchased like any other stock in the open market through any stock exchange member The market price is shown daily on the Boston Stock Exchange

If you have no broker connection, or if you are not familiar with investment matters, I shall be glad to advise you of the name of some responsible investment house through which you can buy Waldorf Common Stock. I shall welcome you as a part owner of this business, no matter how few shares you can buy And you'll have the satisfaction of having your money invested in a business that has been *proved* safe.

P. E. Woodward, **President**

WALDORF SYSTEM INCORPORATED

169 High Street
Boston, Mass.

FIG. 59.—Form of financial advertising used by Waldorf System, Inc.

in some of the larger chains allows them to compete in capital with many of the larger manufacturers, and this financial strength is rapidly making the chains a factor to be reckoned with in financial circles.

In spite of this, however, outside financing should be a last resort for the smaller chain. Unless it is able to finance its new stores out of earnings, it is building on an uncertain foundation. In case it proves desirable to purchase other chains, or embark on a particularly important program of expansion, it should not be necessary to resort to outside help. If this is necessary, the method will depend on the size and the character of the chain. A national chain may be financed from Wall Street, a local chain must be financed locally, and perhaps by the chain itself.

CHAPTER XX

INSURANCE

By M. MacIntyre[1]

One has only to consider for a moment the subject of insurance as applied to chain store systems to see its importance. Insurance means protection from liability. It may mean solvency or the opposite. At a comparatively small overhead expense, the chain can guard itself against various losses which it may incur and over which it has no control. These losses fall into three general classifications:

1. Damage to the premises or merchandise, the most frequent cause of which is fire.

2. Liability on account of personal injuries to individuals on or by the property of the chain, through accident.

3. Loss through the dishonesty of employees.

The average chain may look at these problems in two ways: First, it may consider, if the risk is well distributed, that, if one store is destroyed by fire, the rest will remain unharmed and the loss will be comparatively small and can easily be borne. Second, it may be argued, if the locations are not distributed, the chances of a severe loss on a single occasion are many times increased. In general, the insurance policies of the various chains are combinations of these two points of view.

The Insurance Broker.—Insurance is a matter of major importance, not to be left entirely to the insurance broker. It does not follow that what the broker has to offer in the way of insurance is the best to fit the individual case. The company, however, particularly if it has been established for some years, knows fairly well where the greatest risks lie. The best policy, therefore, is for it to determine what insurance it needs and then make the broker supply it.

[1] Manager of the Insurance Department of one of the largest chain store organizations in the country.

A company gains nothing by distributing its insurance among several brokers. It is certainly no cheaper, and it adds complicating factors. If all the business is not given to one broker, in the event of loss there is complication or confusion in arranging for the adjustment, whereas if one broker handles the entire insurance business of the chain it will be found more satisfactory.

Insurance should be awarded on purely business grounds. There is so much competition between brokers that the question of patronage is apt to come up. Personal friendships should not be allowed to influence the decision.

The cheaper policy is not necessarily the better. In a loss, the small difference in premium payments will count not at all. An insurance company can be compared to a savings bank. It is not so much the more favorable rate of interest as the *security* which is desired. It is not wise, therefore, to take the policies of obscure companies, even though they may call for smaller premium payments.

One more caution will not be out of place: Never allow the broker to get a lower rate by some subterfuge. Misrepresentation voids the policy and this will never be heard about until the loss occurs.

Insurance against Fire.—In general, it is unwise to take any part of the fire risk. Overinsurance is better than underinsurance. This statement applies most particularly to local chains whose stores are situated near each other. The statement may be modified for the larger chains. For example, it may be advisable to assume the initial risk, say of a few thousand dollars, for any given store and to insure the excess over and above that amount. This will give a lower insurance cost and may prove cheaper in the end. It should not, however, be resorted to unless the locations are fairly well distributed. There are some chain stores having as many as ten stores in a given conflagration area and risks of this sort are too dangerous for any but an insurance company to carry.

At first thought, it would seem reasonable to suppose that a large chain could carry its own insurance more cheaply than the same security could be had of insurance companies. But, as insurance is based on averages, a series of losses may occur which would cripple the organization, and, therefore, even the largest

chains cannot expect to insure themselves entirely—that is, assume their own risks. The fire insurance company which did not have more locations than the largest chain store organization would be a small one and its losses would soon lead it into bankruptcy.

Chains whose member stores number in the thousands are comparatively few. Chains in the hundreds are still exceptions, so that, for the great mass of chains, complete insurance against damage by fire is highly to be recommended.

Real Estate Insurance.—As was noted in the chapter on Locating the Store, chain store systems may have to enter the real estate business themselves in order to get the most desirable locations for their own stores, that is, it may sometimes become necessary to purchase or to take the lease of an entire building, or at least of more space than is actually needed, in which to conduct a link in the chain store system. This brings up questions of real estate insurance. Among the forms of real estate insurance commonly carried are fire insurance on buildings, rents, leasehold interest, and improvements.

1. *Building Insurance.*—If a lease of an entire building, and, almost invariably, if what is known as a ground lease is taken, the lessee (the chain store system) is required to keep the building insured for the benefit of the landlord. If, when making the lease, the fire clause does not provide that the repair or rebuilding of the premises shall be performed by the lessor (the landlord), insistence should be made upon providing that the building insurance should be in the names of both landlord and lessee as interest may appear. Building insurance frequently contains a "loss payable" clause in favor of a mortgagee. It is important to note that it is not necessary for the mortgagee interest to appear in all policies, but only in as many as may be required to make up the amount of the mortgagee's interest. In other words, to have a mortgagee clause or designation in some policies and not in others does not render the insurance non-concurrent.

The amount of insurance is important. If the lessee is responsible for a deficiency of insurance in case of loss, it is advisable to insure for full insurable value regardless of any coinsurance clause. One hundred per cent coinsurance should never be used in building policies. Insurable value is not replacement

value, but replacement value less depreciation. Recently, it has become possible to carry insurance against loss from a fire due to depreciation, but prior to that time a loss due to depreciation had to be borne by the lessee or the landlord, according to the terms of the lease.

2. *Rent Insurance.*—There are several forms of rent insurance—rental value (occupied or vacant), rent (occupied only), and leasehold interest (rent paid in advance). It is sometimes difficult to know which form should be used. Generally speaking, the *rental value* form should be used in the following two cases:

(*a*) When an owner leases a building to a number of tenants whose leases contain provision for abatement of rent in case of untenantability due to fire and for termination of lease with or without refund of rent paid in advance.

(*b*) When the lessee of an entire building, under a fire clause providing for no abatement of rent, leases various portions to different tenants with a provision in the lease for abatement of rent in case of untenantability due to fire.

The *rent* ("occupied only") form should be used where an owner leases to a single tenant under the conditions above described, or where a lessee of an entire building, under a fire clause providing for no abatement of rent, sublets the entire premises to a third party under terms providing for an abatement of rent. In many insurance jurisdictions there is a difference of 25 per cent in the rate between the two forms in favor of the "occupied only" form, which should be taken advantage of whenever possible.

Rent Paid in Advance.—Where a lessee is holding under a lease providing for an abatement of rent in case of untenantability due to fire, but not providing for refund of rent paid in advance, he should insure under the leasehold interest form.

3. *Leasehold Interest.*—There are several forms of leasehold insurance, including rent paid in advance, anticipated profits, and bonus. The first form differs from the others in that it refers to rents paid or to be paid. The other forms are designed to guard against the loss due to fire through the termination of the lessee's lease, of the benefits of moneys invested, or of profits which, during the term of the lease, would have accrued. The

amount collectible under these forms is automatically reduced according to the unexpired term of the lease on any given date.

4. *Improvements.*—Improvements are betterments made to existing buildings, and a lessee may insure his interest in such improvements against damage to or the loss of them by fire in his own name. A landlord is not generally under the obligation to restore improvements made by a tenant, although an owner usually does so unless the improvements are of an unusual character or expensive. It should be kept clearly in mind that, if a lessee erects a new building on vacant land, this does not constitute an improvement within the meaning of the improvement form of insurance. The same would have to be insured as a building in the name of the lessee *as owner* with a special clause providing that it is standing on leased ground if, by the terms of the lease of the ground, title to the property did not immediately pass to the landlord. If title passed, then the building must be insured as such in name of the ground landlord, and the lessee as interest may appear, *with the consent of the landlord.*

Fire Insurance Policies.—There are two types of general fire policies: first, floater policies, and, second, blanket policies. These are in contradistinction to ordinary policies applying to a specific location. A blanket policy covers, say, any given number of locations in the chain. A floater policy, on the other hand, covers all present locations and any others which may be acquired of the same class. It is necessary, of course, to carry specific policies on warehouses or office buildings where the value of the unit is especially large.

In the larger cities, where the greatest number of chain stores are located, the 80 per cent coinsurance clause is in current use. It is important to make a study of this clause. It does not mean that it is necessary for the chain store organization to carry any part of its risk. As an example of what the clause is, assume that the insurable value of the property is $10,000 and that $8,000 of insurance is carried. If a fire loss of anything up to $8,000 dollars is sustained, it may be collected from the insurance company in full. On the other hand, if only $7,000 worth of insurance were carried, then only seven-eighths of the actual loss could be recovered, and so on in the same proportions. In other words, the owner must insure 80 per cent of the value of

the property if he wishes to collect the full amount of the partial loss. Otherwise, it is only possible to collect proportionately.

Plate Glass Insurance.—Since window display forms such an important part in chain store merchandising, plate glass windows should be considered in the insurance problem. Chain stores having several hundred stores may perhaps safely assume their risks on plate glass insurance. If the company has been carrying insurance, and wishes to see how it would work out in its own case, it may secure figures for the last two years as to breakages, and get a glass concern to give a figure as to the cost of making replacements. Allow a 25 per cent salvage for glass recovery. Compare the cost of replacement minus salvage with the premiums paid, including the reinstatement premiums (wherever a breakage occurs, it is necessary to get a new policy, and to pay a so-called reinstatement premium).

If the cost in two years is less than the premiums which it would have been necessary to pay, then it may be well to experiment for a year in assuming the risk, setting up on the books a fund to take care of breakages, this fund to be equal to the premiums which would have been paid.

The company can assume such a risk as this because, even though a heavy series of losses should occur, they are limited in any single case.

Public and Employers' Liability Insurance.—Insurance against accident on the premises costs little, and the possibilities of incurring damage suits are great. It is likewise necessary to insure employees under the compensation law. These are cases of protection against events which are not likely to occur, but, in the event of their occurrence, the claim for damages may be large.

In choosing the company in which to take out this class of insurance, the best is none too good. Liability cases give rise to claims which may not be settled for years, and it is necessary to be sure that the insurance company will be doing business at that time. If the insurance company fails, it is well to remember that the liability of the chain organization is not in any way lessened thereby.

Chains in certain lines may find it necessary to carry special liability insurance. For example, chain drug stores should carry

druggists' liability insurance against wrong filling of prescriptions and also against incorrect delivery.

Since most chain stores use automobiles for the transportation of goods between stores and warehouses, if not also for retail delivery, automobile liability insurance should be carried. It is well to have this in the same company which covers the public liability in stores, since there are frequently border-line cases. If two insurance companies are involved, it would permit a dispute, whereas if there is only one company, there can be no excuse for its not shouldering the entire responsibility.

Every accident of any kind should be reported to the insurance company, even though there are no personal injuries. The latter may develop, and failure to give notice may prejudice the insurance.

Other Forms of Insurance.—Burglary and hold-up insurance are almost necessities, especially since it is known that stores operating on a cash-and-carry basis take in a great deal of money.

Protection against messenger and paymaster robberies should also be carried. This may be included on the same policy with the burglary and hold-up insurance.

Life insurance on executives drawn in favor of the corporation or firm may be desirable as a means of offsetting temporary loss of business or the lessened ability of the new incumbent. This is a matter for individual decision.

Group insurance may, or may not, be an important stabilizing factor in labor turnover. Where the wages in a trade are practically fixed, as where employees are unionized, the additional attraction of group insurance may prove alluring. But where there is no fixed rate, the employees seem to prefer an increase in wages rather than insurance protection, regardless of how small this increase may be. That is, the employee of the retail store class prefers the small immediate advantage to the greater advantages which would accrue to his dependents after his death.

Employees will not stick to one chain merely on account of group insurance if they can go to another chain which also offers them group insurance. This defect, of course, may be obviated to some extent by making the insurance inoperative during the first six months.

Group insurance is a question which affects the liability of the company in no way. Its purpose is rather towards making the employee more satisfied and contented, and in reducing the labor turnover. Each chain must decide whether it answers this purpose from the circumstances and factors which bear on its own case.

Bonding Employees.—Chain store employees should, without exception, be bonded. This does not mean that there is a large percentage of dishonesty among chain store employees, but there undoubtedly is great opportunity for dishonesty in various ways, and this should be discouraged by the company in every possible way.

Employees should be bonded not so much on account of the expectation of recovering losses, as for the elimination by the bonding company of dishonest employees. In order to recover losses on a bonded employee, it is necessary to prove dishonesty. Most thefts from chain stores are made in small quantities and the detection of any individual delinquency is difficult. Furthermore, all losses not proved against dishonest employees must be borne by the employer.

The bonding company's real function is to serve as an investigator of the character of the chain's employees. A bonding proposition which does not contemplate a thorough and immediate investigation of the prospective employee's record is valueless. The bonding business is founded on the average honesty of the human being, and its success is determined by narrowing the risk, in so far as possible, through elimination of dishonest individuals.

The way to prevent losses is not to have employees who steal. Bonding is one way of selecting honest individuals, as well as a protection against defalcation.

Conclusions.—A chain store system makes use of every economy possible in its effort to make the purchasing and merchandising mechanism 100 per cent efficient. Therefore, it is important to make sure that a lack of protection, where protection is necessary and possible, should not nullify the merchandising economies. That is, insurance should be adequate.

The problem, of course, differs for the chain with three stores and the chain with three hundred—not in principle, but in the

variety of risks to be assumed. The larger the company and the larger the number of branch stores operated the larger the opportunity for self-insurance. In the largest chains, there should be a special department to take care of insurance problems—to decide on the necessity of protection and the amount of insurance which should be carried and the premium it is necessary to pay. But insurance problems should not be neglected. It is worth while to pay for the protection insurance gives.

CHAPTER XXI

THE MANUFACTURER'S CHAIN

It is necessary at once to sound a caution against confusing chains which manufacture with the manufacturer's chain. The former is primarily a retailing organization and in no case limits its sales to the articles it manufactures. It sells what the public wants and, if it can make the public want goods of its own manufacture, so much the better. The true manufacturer's chain, on the other hand, is limited to a manufacturer who aims to dispose of a part or all of his output through his own retail outlets.

The immediate causes of a manufacturer starting a chain of retail stores may be many, but the majority of them come down, in the end, to dissatisfaction with the methods of distribution. Many companies find the jobber and the retailer extremely unsatisfactory. In times of depression, these outlets become choked, and the manufacturer is compelled impotently to wait until the road is clear. In times of prosperity, jobbers and dealers send in order after order, but when the turn comes they are just as quick with their cancellations.

Manufacturers who start retail stores, therefore, do so usually with the clear purpose of distributing their products more directly. That they have had no retailing experience is too often lost sight of at the beginning. Manufacturing and retailing functions are almost diametrically opposed. It takes a different type of mind in the executive and an entirely different type of organization for these two functions. In addition, there are the ever-present questions of whether manufacturing or retailing is more important to the company, and the question of which one should prevail. Because there are many successful retail chains operated by manufacturers does not alter the fact that the manufacturer has to face an exceedingly difficult problem.

Advantages of the Manufacturer's Chain.—A manufacturer should take careful stock of what is to be gained before definitely

deciding to enter the retail field. In other words, he must budget his prospects. On one side of the page he must put the advantages he expects to gain, and on the other the obstacles which he must be prepared to surmount. He must carefully weigh the results.

The following discussion is based on an excellent article on the subject which appeared recently. In the first place, what can the manufacturer hope to gain by starting a chain of retail stores?

1. If they are properly managed, he should receive almost 100 per cent cooperation in backing up his consumer advertising. This brings out immediately one of the causes of dissension between the manufacturer and the dealer. The manufacturer wants his product given first preference by the jobber and the dealer and the same feeling is shared by his rival manufacturers. This may be obviated by granting exclusive agencies, but whether exclusive agencies are the best form of retail merchandising for manufacturers is open to question.

2. Retail prices can sometimes be lowered. This is a real advantage in any retailing proposition. The chain, however, immediately experiences the condition of affairs encountered by the Regal Shoe Company, where the company was selling shoes in its own stores at less than the Regal agency around the corner. What is the answer? Price is such an important element in chain store competition that the manufacturer might profit by it. Indeed, the ability to sell at a lower price would almost be necessary to make the manufacturer's chain successful in a short time.

3. Any service work demanded by the retailer can be rendered more satisfactorily. Naturally, the management can install the most modern merchandising policies and see that they are uniformly carried out in the stores. In other words, the manufacturer will initiate his own service rather than wait for a dealer who may not see the need for it or, if he does, may not have sufficient interest to bring it to the attention of the management.

4. Substitution can be more surely avoided. The importance of this point will depend largely upon the company's present relations with its retailers.

5. The consumer and his tastes can be studied at first hand. This is a real advantage and one which many manufacturers have taken advantage of. In this case the retail stores are not created primarily for profit and the stores are usually few in number, to be used as laboratories.

6. The product itself can frequently be improved as a result of direct contact with the user.

7. It is possible to develop new sales arguments.

8. The results obtained through the retail stores can be applied in dealing with other retailers outside the organization.

9. Advertising and display material can be made uniform and used to much greater advantage than if merely distributed to agencies or retailers.

10. Road salesmen can be trained in retail stores.

11. By the publicity attained, new dealers may be secured to handle the product.

So much for the tabulation of advantages. The following are some practical advantages, as found by representative manufacturers:

One of the main reasons for manufacturers opening retail stores was the larger volume of sales. In many cases it was a last resource. In some cases, stores in particular communities have been opened only because of the peculiar character of the competition there. They might be called strategy stores. Some stores have been started when a market had to be created for a new product; sometimes when there were no dealers in the field, as with automobiles. Sometimes stores were started when goods were so novel that dealers hesitated to take them up. This was true of Dennison's retail stores in the early days. Dealers would not carry a large enough stock. The present Dennison stores are more like warehouses than stores.

As far as reducing the retail price is concerned, one company was found which had succeeded in selling its goods at from 15 to 20 per cent less.

There are technical products which demand service. The Waterman Fountain Pen Company has several retail stores. Yawman & Erbe and the Library Bureau are further examples.

Manufacturers' stores may serve as experimental laboratories and training schools for salesmen. The manufacturer can study the buying public through his retail stores. S. E. Summerfield, president of the Gotham Hosiery Company, says that through his New York stores he can get information regarding public taste he could not secure in five or six months through other dealers.

Chain Shirt Shops were created to try out the selling of Olus combination shirtwaist and drawers for men, which had not

worked well in the regular trade. They did not work here either, but the retail stores are excellent outlets for other men's wear. The Dennison stores, according to Advertising Manager Schuyler Van Ness, are used as laboratories to get first-hand criticism of goods from home consumers. Defects can be discovered immediately.

Some manufacturers have found that one of their stores conducted profitably is of more value in convincing retailers of the value of the product than anything else. The Gotham stores are frequently visited by buyers. The retail store often gives the product backing in the eyes of the public.

The Redfern Corset Company's stores are maintained almost entirely to train dealers' department heads and saleswomen in the art of corset fitting, alteration, merchandising, and stockkeeping.

When Dennison moved the location of his Philadelphia store, a near-by retailer threw out his entire department, and a year later put it back with double the size because of increased calls for Dennison goods.

These experiments have been cited at length because they illustrate the variety of uses to which the manufacturer may put his retail outlets. The manufacturer who is thinking of starting a chain of retail stores should take all these points into consideration.

Disadvantages.—The disadvantages which the manufacturer must overcome when starting retail stores are so serious that it becomes a desperate remedy for a situation which can be solved in no other way. The disadvantages may be listed as follows:

1. It has taken years in nearly every case to get stores on a paying basis. Many times they have been operated at actual financial loss.

2. There is always the danger of trying to compete with the company's own retailers unless, like Browning, King & Company, the retail stores absorb the company's entire production.

3. Frequently the retailers object strongly to a retail store operated by the company and, while the stores of the company may be successful, sales may fall off sharply in agencies.

4. Since the manufacturer must maintain the highest standards in his stores, he has a high overhead.

5. The chain must obtain the services of an experienced retail manager. This is essential. The manufacturer himself is not competent to look after the retailing end of the business. The whole question of the personnel becomes more difficult, owing to the lack of personal relations between the management and the retail end of the business.

6. The manufacturer is limited to his own line of goods. In this way he may be at a disadvantage in comparison with independent dealers or chains. It is also claimed that the manufacturer's chain does not respond quickly to change in public taste, because the initiative generally comes from the manufacturing instead of the retail end.

The manufacturer can now see just what points he must consider before starting a retailing venture. In nearly every way he is at a disadvantage when compared with the retail chain selling the products of others as well as its own, but the fact that successful chains are run by manufacturers is sufficient evidence that the enterprise is by no means hopeless. The manufacturer must weigh the following points:

1. What is my purpose in entering the retail field?

2. Is there no cheaper and easier way out of the difficulty experienced in distributing or selling the product?

Organization.—When the manufacturing end is in control, chain organization may differ in various ways. The essential point is the degree of control exercised by the directors of the manufacturing company and, in some measure, the degree with which they exercise the power actually in their hands.

Following are some of the ways in which the retail outlets and the manufacturing enterprise can be and are coordinated:

1. Where the whole output of the factory is sold through retail outlets of the company. This is the simplest form of manufacturer's chain because it eliminates the intricate dealer and agency question. In this class come such chains as Browning, King & Company, who started in 1868 to retail their own products and now own 17 stores. The Library Bureau for forty years has followed the policy of selling all its goods through its own stores. The Singer Sewing Machine Company, with 6,000 stores in all parts of the world, and 1,800 in this country alone, is one of the most imposing examples of a successful manufacturer's chain.

2. Chains which sell through their own retail stores and also through independent retailers or agencies. Most manufacturers' chains fall under this classification. The W. L. Douglas Shoe Company, the Regal Shoe Company, A. G. Spalding & Brothers, etc. are examples of this type. Naturally, such a system involves much more accounting than the first type. In such cases goods are billed to member stores at wholesale rather than at retail prices, to avoid a double system of accounting at headquarters.

3. There is the further type of manufacturer's chain, small in size, which is not designed primarily for retail outlets. The Gotham Hosiery Company is an example of this type. Sales for 1921 through its three retail stores in New York amounted to over a million and a half dollars. In the tiny shop on West Thirty-fourth Street there are 18 salesgirls placed as close to each other as they can stand. Nothing is sold but Gotham Hosiery and, as there is little looking around or pricing, the turnover is exceedingly rapid. Warner Brothers Company, makers of Redfern corsets, have stores in New York City, Chicago, and San Francisco. The Sherwin Williams Company, paint manufacturers, have retail stores in many cities.

Many manufacturing companies are run under the committee plan, by which the heads of the organization, in conference, map out procedure and development. Naturally, they attempted to extend this plan to the retail stores, but found it did not work. Chain stores need centralized control, chiefly because they themselves are so scattered that there must be some well-defined bond holding them to the central organization. A committee is too impersonal. It is too cumbersome. It takes too long to function. It cannot keep pace with local conditions. Every chain should have some sort of executive in charge who knows his business and who is in direct control of an able staff of subordinates.

Some manufacturers' chains have solved the problem of organization by forming a separate holding and operating company to manage their retail outlets. Whatever form of control is chosen, it should always be borne in mind that the selling and the manufacturing must be divorced and that, if either is to furnish initiative for change in policy, this should preferably come from the retail end as being closer in touch with public demand.

The Product.—R. A. Bruce says that, for chain store purposes, products must be divided into two classes:

1. Convenience goods, which can be sold without disturbing existing distribution to any great extent.

2. Articles demanding personal service which will interfere with existing trade relationships.

In the first case it is perfectly possible for Page & Shaw to have a retail store of its own in the middle of a block and to have agencies in two drug stores, one at each end of the block, because candy is a convenience article and people buy it wherever they are.

In the second case people will go out of their way to get a particular article. The manufacturers of shoes operating retail stores and also giving agencies have this problem.

The product can be considered in a different light, however. If the manufacturer makes a product which is extremely limited in its use, such as a door hinge, it is quite evident that a chain of retail stores would not be worthy of serious consideration. His logical outlet is the dealer and his logical appeal to the public is through advertising.

But where the product itself is the entire output of an industry, as are shoes, hats, shirts, clothing, etc., it is equally evident that the product is fitted for sale through a manufacturer's chain. That is, as far as the product itself is concerned, there is sufficient demand from the public to support a store dealing exclusively in this product.

Stock Control.—One of the greatest problems of the manufacturer's chain is to balance its stock so that all customers may be satisfied without leaving a large quantity of goods in stock. It is necessary to find some method of securing equal turnover in all lines. This result has been accomplished to a great extent by the Regal Shoe Company. By making a tabulation of the sizes of men's shoes sold in the company's stores over a number of years, it was found, according to the account in *System*, that 62.26 per cent of sales were made in the 18 best selling sizes, 23.09 per cent in the 17 next best selling sizes, and 14.65 per cent in the remaining 67 sizes. The results for women's shoes were even more conclusive. In the 90 sizes carried, 87.57 per cent of sales were made in the 33 best selling sizes, and 12.43 per cent in the remaining 57 sizes.

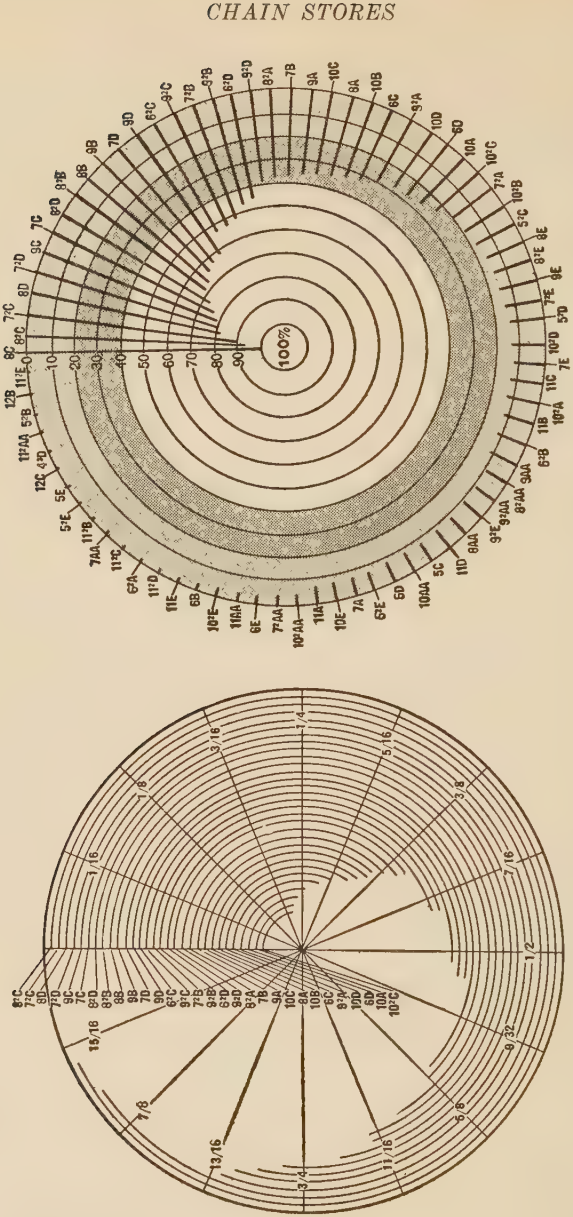


FIG. 60.—Charts drawn by Regal Shoe Company to indicate volume of business done in each size of shoe. (*System.*)

Figure 60 shows the charts which were drawn to indicate the exact percentage of business done in each size. Figure 61 shows the usual order of 60 pairs in a single style and the distribution according to sizes. According to E. J. Bliss, president of the company:

It shows one pair of 5C to three pairs of 8C. Let us assume that a retailer buys ten spring styles—60 pairs each on the regular run. This will give him 10 pairs of 5C and 30 pairs of 8C. But the results of our studies show that this is all wrong. He should have 110 pairs of 8C (instead of 30) to balance his 10 5C's, or only three pairs of 5C (instead of 10) to balance his 30 8C's. He is bound to have sizes left over.

SIZE SHEET

STORE NO. Average 60 pr. Age Range DATE

	2	–	3	–	4	–	5	–	6	–	7		8	–	9	–	10	–	11	–	12	–	13	–	1	–	2	
AA																												
A											1	1	2	2	1	1	1											9
B											1	1	2	3	2	1	1	1	1									13
C							1	1	1	1	2	3	3	3	3	2	1	1	1									23
D									1	1	2	2	3	2	2	1	1											15
E																												
EE																												

STOCK NO. _____ STYLE _____ TOTAL 60

FIG. 61.—Distribution of order for 60 pairs of shoes of a single style according to size. (*System.*)

A control board was devised for each store, divided into 102 squares representing the 102 sizes carried in men's shoes. A number of washers, each of which represents a pair of shoes, or a certain number of pairs of shoes, according to the size of the stock, are slipped over metal pins projecting from each square. Each store has a standard stock and each pin is regulated in length to take the exact number of washers indicating the pairs of shoes which should be in stock. If a bare portion of pin shows, then the stock is not complete.

The Agency Problem.—To what extent can the manufacturer compete with himself? When the field is already supposedly occupied by retailers handling his products, is it possible for him to start his own stores in such a way as to keep the loyal cooperation and help of existing agencies? This is a problem the individual manufacturer must solve in his own way. It is difficult to see how a certain amount of friction can be avoided. A retailer

will naturally resent the entrance of the company into his district with a retail store of its own. He feels that it is going to affect his business adversely. Whether it does or not depends largely upon the company and the assistance it gives the agency when compared with the assistance rendered its own stores.

The Regal Company for a long time maintained two separate policies in regard to its own stores and its agencies. Then it was discovered that customers often had to pay more for their shoes at the agencies than at the company's stores. The whole problem was thoroughly investigated and it was found that the agencies were getting little or no cooperation. As a result, the policy of the company was reversed. The agencies were, to a certain extent, taken into the company. Their own store managers were ordered to give the fullest assistance to the local agency. The district managers were told to give the problems of the agency the same attention they would give the problems of the store managers. An attempt was made to make the agencies feel the company was working with them rather than in competition with them. The most important concession was a leveling of price charges, so that the agencies obtained shoes at exactly the same price at which they were delivered to the company's own stores. Furthermore, the company's stores were made warehouses from which agencies could draw in emergency for supplies of shoes, thus avoiding the necessity of waiting until the company's nearest warehouse could ship the goods, and perhaps saving many sales. A policy such as this is bound to work out to the benefit of both parties, since it is based upon teamwork and cooperation rather than upon competition.

The Personnel.—As in the normal retailer's chain, the personnel is the weak link. The company must pay high to secure good men. They should be given a share in the company if possible. It is difficult to get good men because, in the upper ranks, few chain executives shift from one company to another. Their interest in profits keeps them attached to one concern. When a manufacturer starts a chain of stores, he is naturally prompted to look outside for his men. Whereas a retail chain can start with one link and train men, he must secure men trained elsewhere, especially since he has not the requisite retail knowledge to train them himself.

When the company has secured a man whom it believes capable of taking full charge, he should be allowed to have considerable latitude. He knows, supposedly, a great deal more about the problems the manufacturer will have to encounter in his new undertaking than anyone in the company. If the company has chosen its man wrongly, it can dismiss him and choose another man, and this is far less harmful than hampering him at every step with commands and suggestions. One good plan would be to appropriate a certain amount of money and then tell the retail manager to go ahead on that basis, rendering strict account of expenditures at frequent intervals.

What has been said in other chapters in regard to the personnel will apply equally well here. To all intents and purposes, the member store is run exactly as the member store of a retail chain. There is a manager with a share in the profits and clerks who probably receive some sort of a bonus for sales.

The manufacturer may think it necessary to maintain one or more stores at a loss, because of competition or because it is desired to open up new territory, etc. In this case some arrangement should be made by which the manager of the local store which is not earning money should be recompensed proportionately to his effort. This is especially important, as it would pay to have a good man located at this point.

The Operation of Manufacturers' Chains.—It may be of value to present some of the aspects of chain store operation as applying specifically to the manufacturer's problem. These may be grouped under the following headings:

1. Territory.
2. Purchasing.
3. Accounting control.
4. Sales policies.
5. Advertising.
6. Direct advertising.

1. *Territory.*—Every manufacturer's chain is a potential national chain, although, in actual fact, the retail stores may be grouped within a small radius and the rest of the country covered by agencies. Yet by these agencies the company has paved the way for the installation of its own retail store whenever conditions warrant.

The best results are often secured through retailing the entire production through the manufacturer's own stores. The Singer Sewing Machine Company, for instance, the most conspicuous example, has divided the United States into territories, which are, in turn, subdivided into one hundred or more divisions. The company maintains outside salesmen as well, who turn all the business they secure into the store serving the territory in which the sale is made.

The Regal Shoe Company has six selling districts, determined by volume of sales rather than extent of territory. It is divided into the Southern, the Northern, the Pacific, the Middle West, and the two Metropolitan divisions of New York.

This question of territory is much more important in the manufacturer's chain because of the previously discussed agency question and the nature of the product. On the one hand it is necessary to secure the loyal cooperation of the agencies and on the other the efficient operation of the retail stores.

2. *Purchasing.*—Purchasing, as such, does not exist for the retail branch of the manufacturer's chain. All goods are invoiced to the retail stores at cost of manufacture by the company. Thus, one great source of chain economy is at one stroke removed. The purchasing function is a mere choice of lines to be stocked by local managers. As hitherto explained, this slows up the entire process of transferring the purchasing desires of the public to the source of supply. Consequently, a manufacturing chain is far more likely to be caught with large inventories by sudden shifts in buying habits and style or perhaps of periods of depression.

3. *Accounting Control.*—Accounting is just as necessary in the manufacturers' chain field as in the retail chain field. It is, however, more difficult to obtain the same accurate results if agencies are used for partial distribution. But all manufacturers with retail chain stores recognize the necessity of scientific statistical control both for sales analysis and for individual store efficiency.

4. *Sales Policies.*—When a manufacturer sells through agencies, his desire is to sell the product. The dealer is important only through the volume of sales of the company's product. When the manufacturer runs a retail store or chain of stores, the

individuality of the store takes on prime importance. What an agent does reflects on the agent more than on the company. What one of the company's own stores does reflects directly on the company itself. Thus, the sales policy must be modified to take into consideration the retail links.

The great sales problem is the question of price. Must the company's own stores sell at the same price as the agencies? Suppose there is an overstock of goods. Should agencies and stores combine in sales effort to clear out these stocks? Unquestionably it is very difficult for the manufacturer's chain to reduce prices. Various expedients are tried. Merchandise is shifted from stores where it will not sell to stores where it will. More general still is the practice of giving a premium to the salesman on the sales of slow-moving goods.

Price in a manufacturer's chain is a local question far more than in the retail chain. For example, competition in one city may be especially strong, due to local manufacturing and local retailing. The problem here is quite different from that of another city where competition may be weak and sales easy to make. A price cut is generally a last resort, after all other methods have failed. It may be essential, however, in an oversupply of seasonal goods.

A manufacturer does not sell a number of brands—he sells one brand and that his own. All sales effort, therefore, is concentrated on establishing the preeminence of this particular brand over others in the field. In a retail chain, if one manufacturer's brand fails to sell, it can immediately be discarded, but the manufacturer who runs his own retail store must make his brand successful.

5. *Advertising.*—The general advertising policy of the manufacturer's chain must be made up with reference to the following considerations:

(*a*) The interests of the retail stores.
(*b*) The interests of the agencies.

Many of the manufacturers' shoe chains do national advertising in the interests of both groups. When it comes to local advertising, there has been some reluctance on the part of the local managers to run advertising matter which would help the agencies as well as themselves. This view, an essentially narrow

one, has been generally discarded in favor of the policy that whatever helps the sales of the product will eventually help everybody concerned.

6. *Direct Advertising.*—The manufacturer's chain can frequently use the direct forms of advertising with good effect. It is especially desirable when the chain sells entirely through its own outlets, or sells to agencies only when the market ranges of its own stores and those of agents do not conflict.

The following letter is an excellent sample of what may be done with the sales letter as a direct advertising medium. Here the purpose is to convince the reader of the benefits of buying from the Browning, King & Company's chain, and, second, to point out special values.

Dear Sir:

It may be of interest to our many friends and customers to learn that our firm was organized in 1822 by John Hazard Browning, the grandfather and greatgrandfather of the gentlemen who are now conducting this business.

It seems to us we can claim, with pardonable pride, that to survive for one hundred years in active business is the best proof we can offer of the merit of our merchandise.

However, it is not the only proof.

We are the one concern in the country manufacturing our own clothing and distributing this through our own stores from coast to coast. From manufacturing our own clothing, we obtain certain tailoring and economical advantages, and it has always been the policy of the firm to pass these advantages along to the customers.

The first great advantage we have from manufacturing under our own supervision is that of being able to create and maintain a standard of tailoring that is not possible for a retailer who buys from different wholesalers.

Then, as to value.

We can afford to eliminate and do eliminate the wholesaler's profit. It costs from 25 to 30 per cent to wholesale goods. This saving we give to you. It is a well worth-while saving on a suit of clothes, and it is a saving which couldn't be offered you by a retailer who doesn't manufacture his own clothing, unless it be in his final clearance sales at the end of the season.

"If this is so," you may ask, "how can other retail clothing houses exist?"

Simply because it is impossible for the average man to compare the actual value in clothing. There are so many different grades of tailoring that do not show. If clothing could be compared in value like sugar or flour, a very few of these retailers could exist.

Now we are going to give you a specific example of the opportunities we can offer our customers because of being the manufacturers.

In every large manufacturing business, there is always a season when its hard to keep the factory running at maximum. Through this quiet season, we are making every year now a certain quantity of both men's and children's suits, and we offer these suits in our twenty-one stores at practically cost.

These suits for this Spring are our

Special Value Men's Suits
with Extra Trousers at $40.

These suits are of the finest worsted, both finished and unfinished, in a wide selection of colorings, and cut in the most fashionable models of the day. We believe to the best of our information that no retailer, unless he manufactures the clothing, could afford to sell these suits for less than $60 to $65.

For Boys and Children we made up

Special Value Boys' and Children's Suits
with two pair of knickers at $16.50.

These suits are made of imported English tweeds and cheviots in the newest Norfolk models. Unless purchased from a manufacturing retailer, these suits would probably cost you from $25 to $30.

For the protection of our customers, we have a special ticket sewed on the sleeve in both these Special Value Suits calling your attention to their special value.

If you want complete proof of the greater values offered by Browning, King, you can do no better than to ask to see these Suits and then compare them with what other houses are asking for similar quality.

In this letter, we have endeavored to present simply the facts about Browning, King, and feel confident that these Special Value Suits particularly will prove to you that we have not exaggerated.

We certainly would appreciate your inspection, for we believe that our display of merchandise this year surpasses all our previous endeavors as to style, quality, and value.

Sincerely yours,
Browning, King & Co.

This letter was sent out in four page form, the back being used, as illustrated in Fig. 62, to picture the company's stores. By

FIG. 92.—Back of four page sales letter used by Browning, King & Company. The illustrations of the company's stores help to build confidence in the chain.

showing in such a way the type of store through which the company sells, the prospective buyer is given a feeling of confidence in the chain and in the goods which it has for sale.

Conclusions.—The retailer who starts a chain of stores is beginning at the bottom, and, whatever manufacturing operations he may eventually take up, they are always in response to a direct demand from the retail outlets, and an advance indication that the products manufactured will be disposed of immediately at a profit.

The manufacturer who starts a chain of retail stores in the endeavor to make his distribution more direct, more uniform, or for any other reason is commencing at the top and working down. He has to create a market for his product which is already being manufactured, and he must do this against strong competition. He should choose an executive capable of handling the retail end of his business who will see to the choice of sites, the building up of a personnel, sales policies, etc. And the manufacturer is always hampered more or less by the inelasticity of the product he manufactures to shifting demand, a factor which the retail chain capitalizes immediately.

Whether a manufacturer should start a chain of retail stores is an individual question, depending on capital available, and a careful study of all the problems brought forward in this chapter.

CHAPTER XXII

THE GROCERY CHAIN

Several factors have tended to make chain store expansion in the grocery field particularly thorough and rapid.

1. Priority in the field. The chain store idea had its inception in the grocery business. It had, therefore, the advantages due to being first in the field.

2. Largest potentialities. The selling of food products is the most important retail activity. There are, and always will be, more stores devoted to the selling of groceries than to any other commodity.

3. Greatest repeat possibilities. The grocery store is essentially a neighborhood proposition. It draws a regular volume of business from a restricted radius. It is, therefore, ideally adapted to chain store activities.

4. Price appeal. The ability of the chain to offer groceries at a substantial reduction in price, particularly in a field where price is the greatest incentive to purchase, more than compensates for trade lost because of elimination of service.

5. Weakness of competition. The independent grocers, as competitors, labored under great difficulties. They did not have the benefit of expert management, were largely unacquainted with the principles of retailing, and were unable to practice the economies of mass selling.

The Chain Store Field.—According to Thomas' Official Grocery Register for 1924, there were 381 chains with over five stores, having a total of 27,824 individual links. In New York City, according to one author, there were 5,000 chain grocery stores in 1924. It has been estimated that there are approximately 350,000 retail grocers in the country. It is apparent, therefore, that the chain store has not reduced the total number of retailers in the grocery line to any appreciable extent. Its

effect upon the small store has been most apparent during the last few years, when a number of independent grocers have succumbed. But inasmuch as practically all these failures have been due to inefficient operation, the ultimate benefit has accrued to the public.

Although the total number of chain stores is small in comparison with the total number of independent concerns, the chain does a larger business proportionately. In certain metropolitan centers, for example, half the retail grocery business is done by chain stores. In Philadelphia, the percentage is said to be even greater.

There are several types of so-called grocery chains. There is the regular type of chain grocer handling all brands asked for by the majority of customers, and selling a private brand in addition; there is the self-service type handling nationally advertised goods only; there is the restricted-products type, carrying tea, coffee, butter, eggs, and a few dry staples. There are also a few quality grocery chains, giving delivery and allowing credits. Lastly, there is the development of the chain traveling store, the numbers of which have increased greatly during recent years.

1. *The Regular Grocery Chain.*—In most respects this type of grocery store is no different from its independent competitor. It carries approximately the same products, but not so many lines, there are no "shelf warmers," and the tendency is always towards packaged goods where possible. In methods, of course, the chain grocery is infinitely superior to the independent; the same is generally true of location. This type of chain store normally does some manufacturing or distributing on its own account. The larger chains do a great deal of their manufacturing; the smaller chains concentrate on some particular line, such as breadstuffs.

2. *The Self-service Type.*—This is a newcomer to the chain field, and enough time has not yet elapsed to demonstrate the exact possibilities inherent in such a scheme. It seems better fitted for the grocery field than any other, and, as pointed out elsewhere, it is better adapted for downtown sites than for suburban. These stores sell only nationally advertised goods, following their policy of handling only the best known articles and products.

3. *The Restricted-products Type.*—Many of these stores started as retailers in teas and coffees and found it convenient to take on additional lines—butter, eggs, beans, etc. In general, the stock of the chain grocery store is more restricted in number of items than the independent store, but the tendency seems to be to enlarge the lines of goods carried once it is proved conclusively that there is a public demand for the new products.

4. *Quality Chains.*—This type of chain started from a single store always and then acquired branches. In many cases the management still dislikes the word "chain" as applied to this organization, because it is felt that a chain denotes cash-and-carry, which is precisely what it seeks to avoid. As is natural, these chains are comparatively small, first, because their class of trade is limited to those with money, and, second, because it is so much more difficult to standardize the individual service on which the trade of this type of chain is founded. Rarely, as with Charles M. Decker & Brothers, both cash-and-carry and service stores are operated by the same management.

5. *The Store on Wheels.*—The old custom of bringing the goods to the customer in a store on wheels has received great impetus of late years. The Jewel Tea Company, with 100 branches, operates 14,000 routes, and sells to 800,000 customers; 70 per cent of the business is in coffee and tea, and 80 per cent is sold on a cash basis. The Wright & Parker Company, of Detroit, Mich., operates the so-called "Mototeria," described later in this chapter.

Grocery Chain Trends.—Certain points may be noted in regard to the growth of the chain store movement in the retail grocery field.

1. *Growth from East to West.*—The initial growth took place in the urban centers of the East. Most of the stores are still east of the Mississippi, but there is a constant increase in the number of western stores.

2. *Extension to Rural Communities.*—The original policy of opening stores only in urban and suburban locations has, in some instances, given way to the intensive cultivation of the entire market territory. The Great Atlantic & Pacific Tea Company, for example, has been highly successful in opening stores in small rural communities. Such a policy, of course, entails a high

degree of organization, extremely low operating costs, careful inspection and merchandise control, and, above all, the ability to supply these stores regularly from centrally located warehouses. By choosing local managers from the communities in which the stores are placed, some of the local antagonism is neutralized. It has been found, moreover, that the public is rapidly becoming enthusiastic as to the advantages to be derived by patronizing the chain store systems.

3. *Opportunity for Expansion.*—It has been widely stated that the chain movement in the retail grocery field has reached its height. The facts, however, do not bear out this assertion. It has been proved that the chain store can be successful in the small rural or semirural community, and there are thousands of these which, as yet, have no chain representation. There are even many cities of medium and large size which are not adequately covered.

4. *Change in Character of Competition.*—The original blind antagonism of independent store owners, displayed in savage and ineffectual attacks on the chain systems, has been superseded in many cases by the recognition that the best way to combat the chain is to adopt the chain principles of mass buying and selling. In recent years, therefore, many small chains have been started by the owners of single stores.

5. *Manufacturing.*—At one time it was customary for the larger chains to turn to manufacturing as a means of securing an adequate and cheap supply of goods. It was found, however, that manufacturing was profitable usually when labor was cheap and raw materials low in price. As soon as these become higher, the manufacturer whose sole business it is to make a certain product can operate on a cheaper basis. Furthermore, the general tendency of manufacturers to grant regular jobbers' discounts to chains has made it unnecessary to seek other sources of supply.

The Grocery Chain Location.—Generally, the grocery store seeks the cheaper locations, but, as its chief hold is in the residence districts, where rents are not so high, it can usually obtain inexpensive locations near its logical center of business. Location is one of the essential features of chain grocery operation, as great reliance is placed upon the efficiency of the window display.

It was discovered by experience that one chain could locate near another and not cause any perceptible diminution in the trade of either store. In fact, some stores have claimed that their business was positively increased. Relying on this fact, some curious results have happened. In some communities a single chain store has become well established. A rival chain wishes to establish a branch there, and, judging that the original chain has already done the missionary work of prospecting for a site, it establishes itself as closely as possible to the original chain store, sometimes next door. Sometimes a third chain follows and fixes itself near the first two.

In one town the original chain store was located at some distance from the center and the other two chain stores settled in close proximity. The result was that the trade was not sufficient to go round and a fourth chain store, locating afterwards at the center, obtained the bulk of the trade. In other words, there is naturally a saturation point for chain stores at a certain location.

Grocery chain stores do well in suburban localities, and in recent years have invaded quality locations with surprising success. Automobile trade has had much to do with this development, as the fact that the chain does not deliver makes little difference in this trade. The discovery that chain stores could prosper in rich localities marked a new phase of chain store development.

It should be noticed that the grocery chain store is often situated in small communities supporting no other type of chain enterprise. In this respect it has been the pioneer.

Grocery Chain Standardization.—All grocery chains are fairly well standardized, but in different degrees. The larger grocery chains keep a check on how much paper and string each store uses so as to eliminate waste. Also they charge each store with the wood boxes that hold the canned goods and allow credit of 5 or 10 cents a box when boxes are returned to the warehouse.

The larger the chain the more the tendency towards standardization, due, of course, to lack of contact of management and personnel. Many chain stores, for example, keep an almost exact-to-the-penny inventory of the stock each store contains. These records are so exact that, if there is a ½ cent a pound

drop in the price of navy beans, they weigh the beans in each store and credit that store for the reduction on the books. Similarly, if beans go up ½ cent, each store is charged with that extra ½ cent for every pound of beans in stock. Working in this way, it is possible to tell almost to a penny whether the management is getting every bit of profit which that store makes, or whether the store manager is making something for himself. Such a microscopic treatment of price changes is best suited for a large chain, but in the smaller chains it is simpler to check up on price changes no oftener than once a week. Some chains require weekly changes on staple goods and intermittent changes on dairy goods which may vary considerably during a period of seven days.

The larger chains can afford to demand a closer standardization of method, because they can afford to operate the machinery. Every refinement in accounting necessitates the weighing of the result to see whether it justifies the expenditure in clerk hire. The small- or medium-sized chain must adapt its standard practice to its resources, just as the independent storekeeper cannot compete with the chain store on the ground of individual store efficiency of operation, but must resort to service to retain a hold on his customers.

The Grocery Chain and the Manufacturer.—Strangely enough, it was a long time before the manufacturer could be brought to see that his best interests lay in cooperating with the chain store instead of working against it. He labored under the impression that the chain idea was only an unimportant part of the market, and that, if he openly incurred the hostility of the wholesale grocers, he would lose much valuable business. In fact, although the manufacturer as a rule now sells direct to the chains, he is, in theory, opposed to them out of deference to his jobber connections. But in practice the chain organization affords him a quantity outlet, regular purchases, prompt payment, and a minimum of selling expense. The Hills Brothers Company, manufacturers of Dromedary products, employs a special sales force to sell to chain organizations.

On the Western Coast the relation between chain systems and manufacturers is curious. The independent grocers, who constituted 80 per cent of the total, and who were well organized,

served an ultimatum upon manufacturers that their products would be barred if they sold the chains at jobbers' prices. The manufacturers, desiring to lose neither independent or chain store patronage, had a difficult time deciding which course to pursue.

The whole question hinges on whether the buying department of a chain system is entitled to recognition as a wholesaler. It performs the same functions as the independent wholesale organization, the only difference being that its customers are its own stores, and it does not have to maintain a selling organization. It is estimated that the cost of operation of the wholesale grocer ranges from 7¾ to 12 per cent or even higher, while the independent retailer's costs vary from 20 to 26 per cent. According to Alfred H. Beckmann, secretary of the National Chain Store Grocers' Association, the cost of operation in the average chain for both wholesale and retail functions is from 13 to 18 per cent.

One of the outstanding problems in retail distribution today is whether manufacturers shall be allowed to fix the price at which their products shall be sold to consumers. Hitherto in this country it has been held that manufacturers can make no contract, express or implied, with dealers relating to price fixing.

Most manufacturers recognize the economy of the chain store method of distribution both in buying and selling. The so-called independent retail grocer must necessarily buy from the wholesaler or jobber because of his small buying volume. The wholesaler or jobber is compelled to maintain a large sales force to take care of the retail trade, in addition to which the manufacturer employs specialty salesmen who call on the retailer also, and turn over the orders taken to some jobber for execution—all of which adds to the cost, for which the consumer must pay.

A manufacturer desiring to place his product on the market through a chain of stores—whether it operates 50 or 5,000 stores—need send only one representative to the headquarters of the chain grocery store, where the sale is consummated, if the article has sufficient merit and the terms are satisfactory.

The average retailer, or, rather, the majority of small retailers—and they are in the majority—have, as a rule, little capital when they enter business, and the wholesale grocer extends

credit in addition to furnishing the opening stock. As soon as the retailer is established, salesmen of other wholesale grocers call upon him—a duplication of overhead expense—and the wholesaler, who is really entitled to all that retailer's business, finds his sales diminishing and is obligated to wait the pleasure of the retailer for payments on goods purchased, ranging from 30 to 60 days, or even longer, further emphasizing the credit evil. Not less than 75 per cent of retail grocers require credit accommodation of the wholesale grocer, while the chain grocer both buys and sells for cash.

Legal Attempts against Chains.—From time to time there have been sporadic concerted attempts to secure legal restrictions on chain store activities. For example, during a convention of the National Association of Retail Grocers, at Los Angeles, it was suggested that the number of chain stores in any community should be limited by law. This was echoed by the Missouri retailers, who resolved that the legislative committee recommend at the next session of the state legislature the passage of a bill intended to prohibit any merchant from operating a "chain" of stores in the same town, by providing a tax of $50 per year on the third store, doubling the tax for each additional store, and making a tenth store pay an annual license of $6,400.

This bill was, accordingly, introduced in the legislature of the state. The House Private Corporations Committee reported it adversely eight to two. The Senate committee passed upon it favorably. The hearings brought out some interesting statistics—for example, the average overhead of the chain was from 13 to 16 per cent, the corresponding overhead of the old-line grocer was from 20 to 24 to 26 per cent.

Comparisons were made between the prices of 28 old-line grocers in all sorts of communities and chain grocery prices on exactly the same meat products in one large city. The following average per pound resulted:

	Old-line Grocery	Chain Store
Steak	$.30¼	$.25⅝
Pork chops	.25¼	.19¼
Chuck	.18	.16
Bacon	.33¼	.28

On February 20, 1923, comparison between the price of fifty old-line average prosperous stores in Missouri and the chain store price in the same community shows the following outstanding examples among 32 nationally known and advertised standard articles of food and household necessities:

	Cents		
	Chain price	Regular price	
		Low	High
Potatoes, peck	30	30	60
Butter, pound	56	56	70
Eggs, dozen	37 to 42	38	56
Lard, pound	12½	15	18
Cream cheese, pound	32	35	40
Lux soap	9⅔	10	13
Ivory soap	7	8	9
Argo starch	8	8	10
Eagle milk	19	18	30
Campbell's beans	10	10	15
Kellogg's corn flakes	8	9	13
Quaker Oats	10	10	15
Shredded Wheat	11	12	20
Cream of Wheat	21	23	30
Snyder's catsup	25	28	35
Price Baking Powder	19	20	25

It was also stated that no chain grocery in the United States was controlled by Wall Street, and that each one had been developed from one or two stores over a long period of years.

Another case which excited a great deal of interest was the attempt made by certain retail forces to have the Federal Trade Commission label as unfair the practice of the National Biscuit Company in giving quantity discounts, and in treating the chain as a single customer. As a matter of fact, it was found that the discount policy had worked out as an incentive to the independ-

ent retailer, as was disclosed by the following comparison of customers in the various price classes between 1917 and 1921.

NUMBER OF CUSTOMERS

Discount	1917	1921
Total	226,795	248,487
15 per cent	1,677	3,210
10 per cent	21,949	33,192
5 per cent	59,575	85,591
None	143,594	126,134

Building the Grocery Chain.—The opportunities for building a chain of grocery stores, one by one, are still large. The story of how one grocer started in 1912 with one store, which he had operated for 15 years, and built it up into a chain of 115 stores in 1924, is typical of the general process. As related in the *Journal of Commerce*, George Stadtlander, president of the Progressive Grocery Stores, Inc. (acquired in 1923 by the Jones Tea Company), started by renting a second store, in the front of which the retailing was carried on, while the rear was used for an office and for storage space. Because cash was limited, the sales for each week determined the amount of purchases for the following week. By adhering to this budget policy, a third and then a fourth store were soon opened.

Up to this point all superintending was done by the owner, who spent much of his time teaching the salesmen better methods of retailing. The accounting problem was beginning to cause difficulty, and an expert accountant was employed to make a system to fit the business. This enabled the proprietor to tell at once whether he was selling at a profit or at a loss, and to regulate his prices accordingly.

When the World War broke out, the chain was already large enough to buy direct from the manufacturer, but many manufacturers at that time were unwilling to sell to small chains. Consequently, what purchases could not be made direct were obtained from jobbers. In 1915, the stores were incorporated

and the business was increased under better methods of operation. Great attention was paid to personnel, and all employees showing special aptitude were allowed to progress as fast as they were able.

There has been a growing appreciation by young men of the advantages for promotion offered by the chain store systems, and this is resulting in a better type of personnel in chain grocery stores. Albert Ivison, president of the Quaker Maid Chain Stores, operating 80 stores in Louisville, Ky., says:

> We are becoming more careful every day in our choice of apprentices, or "third men," as we term them, inasmuch as it is from these young men that our future store managers and higher officials must come. Therefore, we endeavor to obtain the better educated and better mannered youth and try to point out to him that the chain store business offers the ambitious young man a really bright future, probably as good and as permanent a one as many of the professions and infinitely better than many of the trades and other businesses. In this way we find, granted you start with the right material, you are reasonably certain of producing the kind of managers that are best fitted to compete with the beforementioned individuality of some of the old-line grocers, because of their higher standard of salary and opportunity for advancement in their chosen business.

The Great Atlantic & Pacific Tea Company.—To George H. Hartford, who died in 1917, is due the credit for initiating the first successful retail grocery chain. The idea, as conceived by him, was carried out and is still being carried out. Stores in the chain of the Great Atlantic & Pacific Tea Company are added only as they seem warranted. Yet, owing to the great size of the chain, the new links come with surprising frequency. A glance at the table below will show how rapidly the number of stores has increased since 1910.

1910	372	1917	3,232
1911	404	1918	3,799
1912	447	1919	4,246
1913	628	1920	4,508
1914	1,001	1921	4,744
1915	1,726	1922	7,000
1916	2,866	1923	9,200
		1924	10,303

A program of expansion which increased the number of stores from 1,000 in 1914 to over 10,000 in 1924 is a notable achievement. The volume of commodities sold over its counters is tremendous. As far back as 1919, it sold 50,000,000 pounds of coffee, 35,000,000 pounds of butter, 20,000,000 dozen eggs, 150,000,000 pounds of flour, 200,000,000 pounds of sugar, 300,000,000 pounds of potatoes, 68,400,000 cans of milk, and 200,000,000 cakes of soap.

To date, the Great Atlantic & Pacific Tea Company is the only great national grocery chain. It has, to a large extent, succeeded in solving sectional difficulties. After experimenting with various policies, it abandoned credits and deliveries in 1912, and later adopted the policy of selling products asked for by the customers, and, in addition, of manufacturing as much as possible of its own products to compete either in price or in size of package content.

The chain has always believed that it will be successful in measure as it models its plans on the wishes of its customers. For example, an investigation was made in the New York territory to find out the public attitude towards the organization. Prizes totaling $5,000 were offered for the best ideas as to how the organization could improve its service. Three questions were asked:

1. Why do you not trade in an A. & P. store, and what influences you to trade elsewhere?—or why do you trade in an A. & P. store, and what appeals to you most?
2. What should the A. & P. do to be of greater service to the public?
3. What additional articles, groceries, or other merchandise would you like to purchase in A. & P. stores?

The Kroger Grocery & Baking Company.—By its purchase of the 72 Childs stores in Indiana, the Kroger Grocery & Baking Company increased the number of its member stores to 1,940, making it the second largest grocery chain in the country. It operates stores in Ohio, Indiana, Kentucky, Michigan, Missouri, and West Virginia.

Like the Great Atlantic & Pacific Tea Company, the Kroger chain is the creation of one man. In 1884, B. H. Kroger owned one store in Cincinnati, which he called the Great Western Tea Company. In 1885, he had three stores, each located on what he

considered a profitable site. At an early stage in the development of his chain, he adopted two policies:

1. To buy direct in so far as possible.
2. To sell his products at as low a price as was consistent with the cost to him, regardless of competitors' prices.

Needless to say, he incurred immediately the enmity of the independent grocers, the jobbers, and the wholesalers, and of many manufacturers who disliked seeing their prices cut. In 1891 he had seven, and in 1902 thirty-six stores.

As soon as he had laid up some money he spent it in advertising in newspapers. The appeal, of course, was based on low prices, and this policy, also, was bitterly resented by his opponents. But it allowed many of his stores to turn their stock 20 times a year, and he continued. As he came into contact with middlemen who refused to sell as he required, he turned them down and started manufacturing on his own account. He made cake, candy, and canned goods, and put up his own brand of coffee. Then be bought 15 grocery stores at Dayton, Ohio, and changed the name to the Kroger Grocery & Baking Company. In 1904, he bought a packing house and made the retailing of meat one of his major activities, although meat is not sold in all stores. In 1908, 60 stores were added at one stroke. Mr. Kroger has founded a bank in Cincinnati, built an interurban railroad, and owns a great deal of real estate. And his chain of stores keeps on growing. Not content with cutting out wholesalers, he has cut out commission brokers, and is buying his produce direct from the farmers on a commission or cash basis.

The Piggly Wiggly Company.—The Piggly Wiggly organization has had a somewhat chequered career since the first Piggly Wiggly store was opened in Memphis in 1916. Three years later, Piggly Wiggly Stores, Inc., was formed. This corporation immediately acquired about 125 stores, out of about 300 privately owned stores which were operating under the Piggly Wiggly patents. On October 1, 1920, 515 stores were operating in 150 cities in 28 states, of which the company owned 340. In 1923, there were 1,280 Piggly Wiggly groceries in 343 cities, while in 1924 the number had increased to 1,500.

The Piggly Wiggly Corporation owns the patents, operates the fixture factory, and receives a royalty of one-half of 1 per cent on

gross sales from all Piggly Wiggly retail stores, whether independent and licensed under the Piggly Wiggly patent, or belonging to Piggly Wiggly Stores, Inc. The organization plan of Piggly Wiggly Stores, Inc., is shown in Fig. 63. The idea throughout has been to standardize everything. A complete set of rules is formulated for the store manager, which is supposed to cover all probable contingencies.

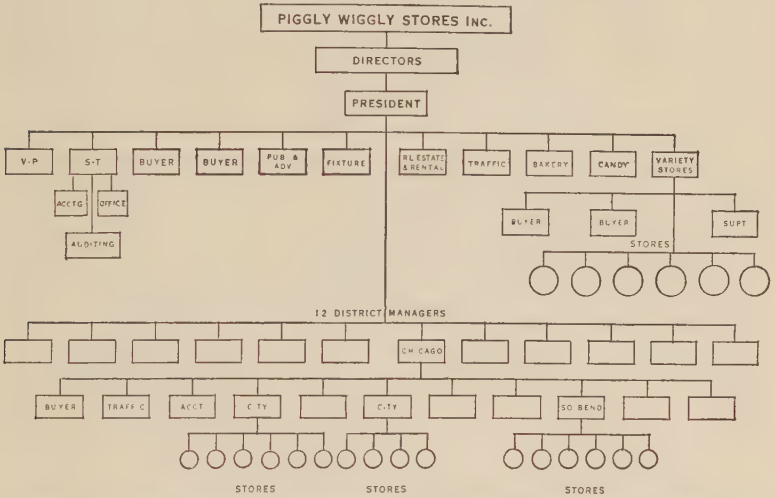


FIG. 63.—Chart showing organization of Piggly Wiggly Stores, Inc. The Chicago district has been considerably reduced by the sale of 97 stores in the city to the National Tea Co. (*Management.*)

Store managers make daily and weekly reports of sales, purchases, payroll and incidental labor. An inventory of stock is made weekly and is checked by the district manager. District managers report monthly on the following activities, according to *Management* (June, 1923):

Payroll Record of Stores, showing sales by week and month, and percentage of payroll to sales.

Report on General Operations, covering all expenses and income for the district, with summaries of profits, expenses, and percentage.

Report of Stores Merchandise Operations, summarizing the month's expenses, purchases, opening and closing inventories for each store.

Report of Accounts Payable.

Report of Accounts Receivable.

Trial Balance.

Balance Sheet, showing assets, liabilities, and net profit or loss for the month.

Even licensees make weekly reports of gross sales by days. Payments of royalties are made monthly.

The standardization of all details is cared for with great exactness. Standard methods are used by the real estate department in reporting and investigating possible locations. There are standard leases. Fixtures are made by the company in standard units, enough of which can be packed in a single box car to equip one store. Any carpenter can set up the equipment by following the instructions. Only standard advertised brands are used. Stock is arranged in the same manner in every store, and shelving is made to hold just so many items of each kind. Heavy items are located near the exit, so that the customer will not have to carry them far. Devices are arranged so that employees handle merchandise only once, and porters and others employed in the store have definite tasks to perform. Though they may be in the aisles through which the customers pass, they are forbidden to touch any merchandise or aid the customer in the selection of goods.

Every attempt is made to secure the goodwill of the customer. For example, if, by any chance, the customer causes any damage, the rule reads as follows:

> Should the customer inadvertently or through any other cause, knock from a shelf a bottle or package of anything that breaks—and is thereby ruined for sale—and should the customer or any visitor do any damage about the store which is not done with malicious or wilful intent, it will be considered the duty of the employee who sees damage result through action of such customer or person to tell that person that such a one is not in any wise to blame, even should such a person offer to make payment, the money must be refused and customer made to feel that such accidents will happen sometimes.

Even the number of keys to the store is mapped out in this little booklet, which sets forth the conduct of the stores and of the store personnel.

The Wright & Parker "Mototeria."—The Wright & Parker Company operating 187 stores, with headquarters at Detroit,

has made some interesting experiments with a store on wheels, mounted on a 2½-ton truck chassis, and operated over a regular route on a regular schedule in the residential sections of Detroit. According to the account in the *Retail Ledger*, the store measures 7½ by 22 feet, but is able to accommodate ten to twelve customers at a time. It is electrically lighted and heated during the winter by a hot-water connection with the motor. It has shelves, bins, refrigerator, cash register, and plate-glass display windows.

The store is arranged for self-service. An overhead conveyor, with roller-bearing attachments on which customers hang baskets, passes in front of the shelves and leads to the driver-clerk-cashier, who stands at the front and itemizes the purchases on a cash register.

Prices are the same as at the regular stores of the chain, but profits are larger because of lower operating cost and quicker turnover. The Mototeria is aimed to reach customers who could not or would not come to the chain store and carry home their own groceries, or who would buy small articles at the store, but would purchase such articles as potatoes and flour from stores delivering them free of charge.

According to President John H. Parker, the average business in the chain store is $675 a week, while the Mototeria will average $1,000 a week. Furthermore, turnover is increased, rent eliminated, and personnel reduced to one man. The volume of business is increased because peak hours are eliminated. The Mototeria carries the same stock as the regular store, but in smaller quantities, because it may be replenished daily. A number of side lines, such as druggists' sundries, have been found profitable.

The usual method of operation is to drive the Mototeria slowly along the route, stopping when hailed. It is usual to make two or three stops to the block.

The Leading Grocery Chains.—The following statistics of grocery chains in the United States are taken from Thomas' Official Grocery Register for 1924. The list covers 381 chains operating five stores or over, representing 27,824 member stores. The list here reproduced mentions only chains with ten links or over:

Name of chain	Location of headquarters	Number of stores
Alabama		
Hill Grocery Company, Inc	Birmingham	71
Piggly Wiggly Alabama Company, Inc	Birmingham	20
Arizona		
Pay N'Takit Stores Company, Inc	Phoenix	10
Arkansas		
Star Cash Stores, Inc	Fort Smith	15
Cox Stores Company, Inc	Little Rock	46
Hall Grocery Company, Inc	Pine Bluff	15
California		
Economic Stores Company	Bakersfield	10
Economic Food Company	Fresno	14
Martha Washington Stores, Inc	Fresno	40
Bay Cities Mercantile Company	Los Angeles	20
Chaffee, H. G., Company	Los Angeles	71
Daley's, Inc	Los Angeles	130
Groceteria Stores Company of California, Inc	Los Angeles	16
Just Rite Stores	Los Angeles	10
Morrison, E. A., Inc	Los Angeles	26
Piggly Wiggly California Company	Los Angeles	28
Seelig, Sam. Company	Los Angeles	201
Von's Cash Grocery & Market	Los Angeles	42
Pon Honor, Inc	Oakland	17
Skaggs Cash Stores	Oakland	47
Lewis, Alfred M	Riverside	15
Heller's, Inc	San Diego	21
Waite Shaffer Company	San Diego	10
Jenny Wren Stores, Inc	San Francisco	10
Rosenthal's Sales Stores	San Francisco	19
Sunshine Stores, Inc	San Francisco	14
Colorado		
Blanchard Grocery Company	Denver	10
Piggly Wiggly Colorado Company	Denver	17
Piggly Wiggly Grimes Company	Denver	44
Colorado Supply Company	Pueblo	24
Snodgrass Food Company	Trinidad	27
Connecticut		
Davey Brothers, Inc	Bridgeport	70
Great Northern Pacific Grocery Company	Bridgeport	10
Logan Brothers Company	Bridgeport	63
McNamara, D. E	Bridgeport	11

Continued.

Name of chain	Location of headquarters	Number of stores
United Grocery Company	Bridgeport	13
Napier Stores, Inc	Hartford	17
Modern Grocery Company	South Norwalk	21
Economy Grocery Company	Waterbury	98
District of Columbia		
Kidwell, Frank	Washington	14
Old Dutch Market, Inc	Washington	27
Sanitary Grocery Company, Inc	Washington	225
Florida		
Whiddon Cash Stores	Jacksonville	37
Mickler, J. R	Tampa	13
United Markets	Tampa	14
Georgia		
Broyles, R. A., & Company	Atlanta	16
Rogers, L. W., Company	Atlanta	200
Georgia Grocery	Jackson	16
Frese, F. J., Company	Savannah	10
Illinois		
Bankes, E., & Company	Chicago	20
Consumers Sanitary Coffee & Butter Stores	Chicago	52
Great American Stores Company	Chicago	45
Morgan Stores	Chicago	11
National Tea Company	Chicago	527
Royal Blue Stores, Inc	Chicago	35
Snitzeler's Butter Stores	Chicago	18
Consumers Wholesale Grocers	Chicago Heights	30
Parker Chain Stores	Harrisburg	14
Larkin Economy Stores	Peoria	30
Winson Grocery Company	Peoria	36
Indiana		
Hoosier Stores Corporation	Fort Wayne	25
Standard Grocery Company	Indianapolis	110
Oakley's	Terre Haute	32
Roughan Grocery Company	Vincennes	11
Iowa		
Benner Tea Company	Burlington	17
Sanitary Butter Stores	Davenport	18
Kansas		
Dunn Mercantile Company	Wichita	21

Continued.

Name of chain	Location of headquarters	Number of stores
Kentucky		
Glass, S. A.	Lexington	21
Piggly Wiggly Valley Company	Louisville	52
Quaker Maid	Louisville	80
Star Cash Groceries	Ownesboro	10
Maryland		
Crook, James W., Stores Company	Baltimore	110
Kenny, C. D., Company	Baltimore	72
Knoblock Brothers	Baltimore	50
Massachusetts		
Ames, S. K.	Boston	60
Brookside Stores (John T. Connor Company)	Boston	320
Economy Grocery Stores Company	Boston	100
Ginter Grocery Company	Boston	150
Gray, E. E., Company	Boston	56
Hood, H. P., & Sons	Boston	50
O'Keeffe, M., Inc	Boston	330
Rose Tea Grocers, Inc	Boston	71
Winer, Morris	Boston	18
Cloverdale Company	Cambridge	230
Middlesex Stores	Cambridge	14
Quality L. & B. Stores	Fall River	10
Puritan Grocery Stores	New Bedford	11
Economy Stores Company	Pittsfield	14
Phillips, A. H., Inc	Springfield	99
Michigan		
Smith, C. F., Company	Detroit	240
Wright & Parker Company	Detroit	187
McFadyen's, Inc	Grand Rapids	16
Thomas, C	Grand Rapids	30
Minnesota		
Market Basket Stores, Inc	Duluth	20
Consumers' Wholesale Supply Company	Minneapolis	14
Home Economy Stores	Minneapolis	40
Red Owl Stores, Inc	Minneapolis	19
Mississippi		
McCarty-Holman Stores	Jackson	10
Missouri		
Moorhead, E., Grocery Company	Kansas City	12
Union Pacific Tea Company	Kansas City	50

Continued.

Name of chain	Location of headquarters	Number of stores
Whyco Cash Grocery Company	Kansas City	35
Basket Stores Company	St. Joseph	22
Kohn Stores	St. Louis	22
Missouri-Illinois Stores Company	St. Louis	49
Montana		
Sawyer, J. M., Company	Billings	12
Flathead Commercial Company	Kalispell	15
New Jersey		
Eagle Grocery Company	Jersey City	184
Great Atlantic & Pacific Tea Company	Jersey City	9,200
National Grocery Company	Jersey City	385
Wehmann Brothers, Inc	Jersey City	12
American Food Company	Newark	56
Mutual Grocery Company	Newark	62
Peter Rabbit Stores of Newark, Inc	Newark	25
United Grocery Stores	Newark	25
United States Stores Corporation	Orange	350
Great Eastern Stores	Paterson	72
National Stores Corporation	Trenton	52
New York		
Cooper & Son Company, Inc	Auburn	14
National Economy Stores Company, Inc	Auburn	63
Bohack, H. C., Company, Inc	Brooklyn	215
Federal Food Stores, Inc	Brooklyn	168
Jones Brothers Tea Company (controlling Globe Grocery Stores, Grand Union Tea Company, Progressive Grocery Stores, Inc., and Union Pacific Tea Company of Kansas City, Mo.)	Brooklyn	630
Haber, A. & J	Brooklyn	15
Retail Grocers' Supply Company, Inc	Brooklyn	16
Roulston, Thomas, Inc	Brooklyn	452
Danahy, E. T., & Co	Buffalo	24
Flickinger Stores	Buffalo	235
Kamman, John H., Company	Buffalo	31
Larkin Economy Stores	Buffalo	115
Thrift Grocery Stores, Inc	Buffalo	93
Witkop & Holmes Company	Buffalo	33
Cash Food Stores, Inc	Corning	17
Market Basket	Geneva	26

Continued.

Name of chain	Location of headquarters	Number of stores
Quality Cash Stores, Inc	Jamestown	34
Acker, Merrall & Condit Company	New York City	18
Appelbaum, Philip	New York City	15
Atlas Stores, Inc	New York City	48
Beckmann, A. F., & Co	New York City	63
Busy Bee Stores	New York City	40
Butler, James, Inc	New York City	750
Davey, Andrew, Inc	New York City	225
Gristede Brothers, Inc	New York City	100
Healey, Thos. J	New York City	25
Magna Stores, Inc	New York City	10
Mohican Company	New York City	53
Oppenheimer, L., Inc	New York City	60
Pekovitch Brothers	New York City	12
Reeves, Daniel, Inc	New York City	390
Sheffield Farms Company, Inc	New York City	215
Van Dyk, James, Company	New York City	62
Rickborn & Meyer	Newburgh	26
Hart's Self-Serving Grocery Stores	Rochester	53
Uncle Sam's Stores, Inc	Rochester	20
Flinn Company, Inc	Schenectady	52
Hudson Food Products Company	Schenectady	13
Schaffer Stores Company, Inc	Schenectady	35
East India Tea Company	Stapleton	14
Community Stores, Inc	Syracuse	21
Oneida Creameries Company	Utica	85
McCarny, H. R	Watervliet	26
North Carolina		
Gilmer's Stores, Inc	Winston-Salem	15
Ohio		
Acme Cash Basket Stores	Akron	85
M. & K. Stores	Barnesville	25
Flory, A. B., Company	Canton	40
Foltz Grocery & Baking Company	Cincinnati	102
French Brothers, Bauer Company	Cincinnati	21
Kroger Grocery & Baking Company	Cincinnati	1,940
Schneider Grocery Company	Cincinnati	39
Voss Grocery Company	Cincinnati	16
Fisher Brothers Company	Cleveland	200
Home Stores	Cleveland	22

Continued.

Name of chain	Location of headquarters	Number of stores
Sunbeam Groceries, Inc	Cleveland	45
Burkart's Economy Stores	Columbus	18
United States Stores Company	Columbus	90
Clauer Brothers Company	Springfield	15
Fulmer, E. W., Company	Springfield	12
Bellman, Sam. Company	Toledo	33
Thrift Grocery Company	Toledo	60
Oriental Company	Youngstown	15
Brown Grocery Company	Zanesville	12
Oklahoma		
Gen's Cash Stores Company	Tulsa	20
Oregon		
Anderson, R. V	Portland	10
Eagle Stores, Inc	Portland	11
International Sales & Produce Company	Portland	24
Skaggs United Stores	Portland	71
Pennsylvania		
Shaffer Stores Company	Altoona	36
Workmen's Cash Grocery Company	Clearfield	15
Scarlett Community Stores	Erie	14
Surprise Quality Food Shops	Harrisburg	16
Bayer Grocery Company	Huntington	12
Cupp Grocery Company	Johnstown	29
Almar Stores Company	Philadelphia	106
American Stores Company	Philadelphia	1,500
Girard Family Stores	Philadelphia	33
Hubbs Stores Corporation	Philadelphia	14
Butler, P. H., Company	Pittsburgh	194
Charters, S. B., Grocery Company	Pittsburgh	67
Donahoes, Inc	Pittsburgh	31
Eagle Grocery Company	Pittsburgh	45
Federal Supply Company	Pittsburgh	41
Keystone Grocery & Tea Company	Pittsburgh	200
Union Supply Company	Pittsburgh	70
United States Stores Corporation	Pittsburgh	150
United Supply Company	Pittsburgh	12
Cassel, J. H	Reading	19
Bell Grocery Stores, Inc	Scranton	30
Mellet Stores Company	Scranton	19
Weis Pure Food Stores	Sunbury	44

Continued.

Name of chain	Location of headquarters	Number of stores
Oriole Stores	Tyrone	13
Mullison O. R., Economy Stores	Wilkes-Barre	59
Eureka Stores	Windber	25
Meisenhelter Stores Company, Inc	York	11
Rhode Island		
Nicholson-Thackray Company	Pawtucket	75
Mayflower Stores	Providence	130
Piggly Wiggly Rhode Island Stores, Inc	Providence	19
Bresnahan Grocery Company	Woonsocket	11
Tennessee		
United Thrift Stores, Inc	Knoxville	12
White Stores	Knoxville	43
Abraham Brothers & Company	Memphis	10
Arrow Stores, Inc	Memphis	17
Mr. Bowers Stores, Inc	Memphis	60
Piggly Wiggly Stores, Inc	Memphis	1,400
Hill, H. G., Company	Nashville	160
Texas		
Massie-Brown Grocery Company	Chillicothe	13
United Grocery Company	Dallas	32
Adams, Harry J., Inc	Fort Worth	12
Turner & Dingee Grocery Company	Fort Worth	20
Utah		
Skaggs Cash Stores	Salt Lake City	47
Virginia		
Cash & Carry Stores	Newport News	15
Pender, D., Grocery Company	Norfolk	168
Jamison Stores Company, Inc	Roanoke	31
Washington		
Groceteria Stores Company, Inc	Seattle	27
Marr's Stores	Spokane	24
Piggly Wiggly Washington Company	Spokane	15
Haering's Grocetorium	Tacoma	12
MacLean Brothers, Inc	Tacoma	20
West Virginia		
Economy Cash Grocery Company	Parkersburg	21
Henderson & McCann	Wheeling	20
Wisconsin		
Universal Grocery Company	Madison	25
National Tea Company	Milwaukee	59
State Marketing Association	Milwaukee	24

CHAPTER XXIII

THE DRUG STORE CHAIN

The chain store movement in the drug field came comparatively late. The difficulties in standardizing drug store operation were far greater than in the grocery or the tobacco field. They were even greater than the obstacles encountered by the pioneer five-and-ten-cent store chains. In 1900 there were only 25 stores which were entitled to be called links in chains, including the Hegeman and Riker companies, with six stores in New York, and the Owl Drug Company with three stores in California.

In 1920, according to the analysis made by the *Druggists' Circular*, there were 315 chains of three or more drug stores in the United States, operating 1,563 stores. A year later there were 303 chains with 1,763 stores. In 1923 the number of chains had increased to 327, operating, 2,014 stores. This progress denotes a healthy growth in the number of stores per chain. In 1920 the average number was 4.9, in 1921, 5.8, while in 1923 the average was 6.1. More representative figures are obtained by leaving the Liggett stores out of the calculation, when the average number of stores operated per chain in 1920 was 4.3; in 1921, 5; and in 1923, 5.3.

Growth of Leading Drug Chains.—Of the 48,713 retail drug stores in the United States, only 4 per cent are as yet under chain management. The chain systems have confined themselves mainly to the urban sections, with few attempts to cultivate the smaller towns and outlying sections. This, of course, is the preliminary stage of chain growth in practically every case. The best sites are utilized first. But in the next few years the growth of the chain drug stores should show a tendency towards the smaller towns and a tendency also to drop some of the strictly non-drug lines, which would not prove profitable in small communities, owing to the smaller rate of turnover.

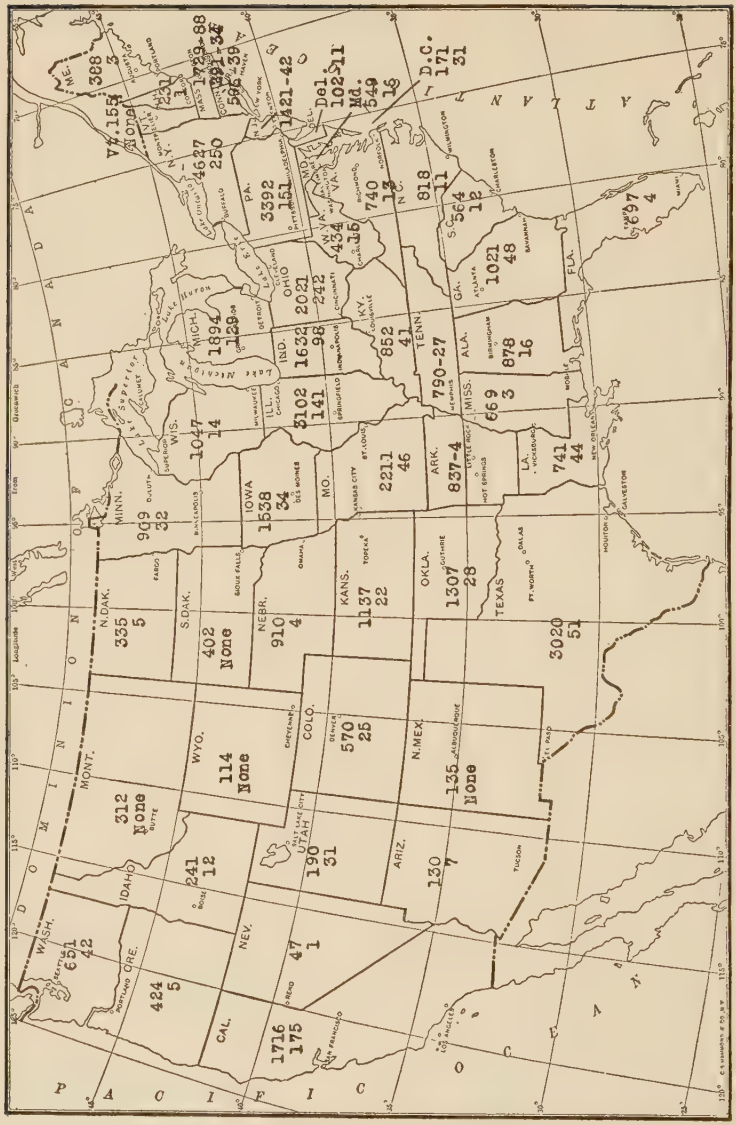


FIG. 64.—Map showing number and location of drug stores in the United States. The larger number represents the number of drug stores, the smaller the number of chain stores. *(Druggists' Circular.)*

Figure 64 shows the number and location of the drug stores of the United States. New York leads, with Pennsylvania second, and Illinois third. New York is also the leader in the number of chain stores, but not in the percentage of chains to independent concerns. The District of Columbia leads with 18.1 per cent, Ohio second with 11.9 per cent, Rhode Island third with 11.6 per cent, and California fourth with 10.1 per cent.

Most of the present drug store chains with ten stores or over have been in operation only a comparatively few years. Ten of these 34 chains did not have ten stores when the last census

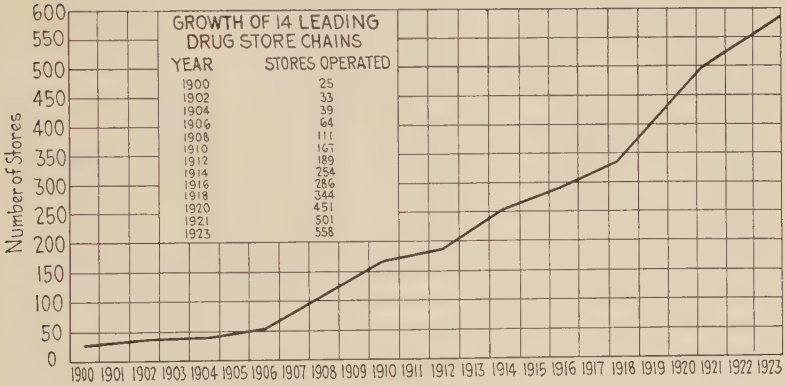


FIG. 65.—Growth of leading drug store chains.

was made in 1921. The employment of large capital and modern methods should make chain growth in the drug field more rapid in the coming few years. Within a year of its organization the National Drug Stores Corporation had 21 stores in operation. Within two years the Brownie Stores Company of Detroit had 25 retail links. The United Retail Chemists' Corporation, operating 23 stores under that name and four under the name of Whelan Cassidy Company, Inc., owns stores in New York, Connecticut, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and in Washington, D. C.

The following table (*Druggists' Circular*) shows the growth of the ten or more stores group, according to size (1923):

Name of store	Location home office	1920	1921	1923
Louis K. Liggett Company	New York City	211	229	263
The Owl Drug Company	San Francisco, Cal.	32	41	39
Walgreen Company	Chicago, Ill.	21	25	36
Sun Drug Company	Los Angeles, Cal.	17	24	29
Marshall Drug Company	Cleveland, Ohio	20	27	28
United Retail Chemists	New York City	15	18	27
National Drug Stores	New York City	21	27	26
Brownie Stores Company	Detroit, Mich.	...	...	25
Clem Thistlewaite	Indianapolis, Ind.	15	24	24
Dow Drug Company	Cincinnati, Ohio	23	22	24
Mykrantz Drug Company	Columbus, Ohio	30	24	24
Miller-Strong Drug Company	Buffalo, N. Y.	19	26	20
Standard Drug Company	Cleveland, Ohio	16	16	19
Day Drug Company	Akron, Ohio	15	15	17
Shumate's Pharmacies	San Francisco, Cal.	12	15	15
People's Drug Stores	Washington, D. C.	...	11	14
Scholtz-Mutual Company	Denver, Colo.	15	16	14
Hook Drug Company	Indianapolis, Ind.	...	...	14
H. C. Kennedy	Harrisburg, Pa.	...	...	14
Schramm-Johnson Drug Company	Salt Lake City, Utah	...	11	14
Detroit Drug Company	Detroit, Mich.	10	11	13
Cooperative Drug Company	Philadelphia, Pa.	11	13	13
Jacobs Pharmacy Company	Atlanta, Ga.	10	10	12
Harvey & Carey	Salamanca, N. Y.	12	14	12
Meyer Brothers Company	Fort Wayne, Ind.	...	...	11
W. T. Knight	Savannah, Ga.	...	...	10
McLean Drug Company	Chicago, Ill.	...	...	10
Paul Freund	New Orleans, La.	10	11	10
Read Drug & Chemical	Baltimore, Md.	...	...	10
May Drug Company	Pittsburgh, Pa.	10	10	10
McCullough Drug Stores	Pittsburgh, Pa.	...	...	10
Gilchrist Drug Company	Pittsburgh, Pa.	...	10	10
Renfro Drug Company	Fort Worth, Tex.	...	...	10
Thornton Drug Company	Salt Lake City, Utah	...	...	10

Figure 65 shows in graphic form the growth of the following 14 leading drug chains: the Louis K. Liggett Company, the Owl Drug Company, the National Drug Stores Corporation, the

United Chemists' Corporation, the Mykrantz Company, the Dow Drug Company, the Marshall Drug Company, the Miller-Strong Drug Company, the Sun Drug Company, the Standard Drug Company, the Scholtz-Mutual Drug Company, the Day Drug Company, the Jacobs Pharmacy Company, and the Peoples Drug Stores. As noted by the *Druggists' Circular*, there were 105 more stores in the ten-or-more-stores group in 1921 than in 1920, while the 1923 total shows an increase of 292 stores—an increase of 53.2 per cent—over the 1920 figures.

In 1920 a trifle over 38 per cent of all the chain stores was in the ten-or-more-stores group, while in 1923 this had increased to 41.5 per cent.

The Louis K. Liggett Company.—The Louis K. Liggett Company, operating 263 stores in this country, is the largest factor in the retail drug field, and is in a fair way to become a national drug chain. No discussion or description of this company is possible without a preliminary account of its connection with the United Drug Company. The latter organization was formed in 1902, at a meeting in Boston of 35 retail druggists. Mr. Liggett, the guiding spirit of the organization, who had been a traveling salesman for Chester Kent & Company, manufacturers of Vinol and other proprietary medicines, had been impressed with three evils in the drug trade:

1. There was a tendency of manufacturers to force retailers to overstock.

2. There was substitution by the dealers of their own preparations in place of those of proprietary companies.

3. There was a failure to maintain the manufacturer's indicated resale price.

The original 35 members drew up resolutions to the following effect:

1. The company was to manufacture only for stockholders.

2. There was to be only one stockholder in each town.

3. The company was to make and market at the outset at least 100 remedies, all of which were to be sold under a single blanket trade-mark.

4. Six of the 100 remedies were to be advertised extensively in season.

5. The first lines to be advertised were to be a dyspepsia cure and a catarrh cure.

6. All of the products, except the advertised remedies, were to be sold to the stockholders at such a price as would not net the corporation more than 25 per cent on its gross selling price.

7. Each preferred stockholder had to purchase as much stock in the company as the cost of the first year's advertising in his city.

8. Control of the corporation was to be in the hands of the druggists themselves.

9. As long as a stockholder owned common stock, he was to be a perpetual agent.

The company, in addition to manufacturing drugs, has been interested in the manufacture of perfumery, of candy, and of stationery. Liggett also organized the Drug Merchants of America, a company formed to purchase other goods than were manufactured by the company for use in agencies.

The Louis K. Liggett Company was organized in Boston in 1907, five years after the foundation of the United Drug Company, to relieve the United Drug Company of risk of loss from a controversy as to the Boston agency. This dispute had originally started between the United Drug Company and the Riker-Jaynes Company. In 1910 the Liggett Company had 26 stores, while the Riker-Hegeman-Jaynes people controlled 58. In 1900 the Hegeman Company had four stores in New York and the Wm. B. Riker Company had two stores, also in New York.

By a process of combination, the Riker-Hegeman-Jaynes people in 1916 had 107 stores in operation. In that year the Liggett Company, owning 45 stores at the time, bought them out. Since then the Liggett chain has expanded steadily, and to its policies and practices are due in great measure the present conception of the chain drug store as a retail outlet capable of merchandising a wide variety of stock. By the purchase of the 650 stores of the Boots Chemists' Shops in England, the total number of stores operated by the Liggett interests is in the neighborhood of 1,000. The stores in this country are distributed as follows:

Albany, N. Y.	3	Meriden, Conn.	1
Allston, Mass.	1	Miami, Fla.	1
Arlington, Mass.	1	Minneapolis, Minn.	3
Atlanta, Ga.	5	Mt. Vernon, N. Y.	1
Augusta, Ga.	1	Montclair, N. J.	1
Bangor, Me.	1	Nashville, Tenn.	1
Binghamton, N. Y.	1	Newark, N. J.	3
Birmingham, Ala.	1	New Bedford, Mass.	1
Boston, Mass.	19	New Britain, Conn.	1
Battle Creek, Mich.	2	New Haven, Conn.	1
Baltimore, Md.	1	New Orleans, La.	3
Bridgeport, Conn.	1	Newport, R. I.	1
Brockton, Mass.	1	New Rochelle, N. Y.	1
Brookline, Mass.	1	Newton, Mass.	1
Brooklyn, N. Y.	12	New York City, N. Y.	54
Buffalo, N. Y.	3	Oklahoma City, Okla.	1
Cambridge, Mass.	1	Passaic, N. J.	1
Chambersburg, Pa.	1	Paterson, N. J.	2
Charlotte, N. C.	1	Pawtucket, R. I.	1
Chattanooga, Tenn.	1	Philadelphia, Pa.	9
Chester, Pa.	1	Pittsburgh, Pa.	1
Cincinnati, Ohio.	5	Pittsfield, Mass.	1
Columbus, Ohio.	2	Portland, Me.	1
Detroit, Mich.	3	Poughkeepsie, N. Y.	1
Des Moines, Iowa.	1	Providence, R. I.	13
Dallas, Tex.	2	Reading, Pa.	1
Duluth, Minn.	1	Red Bank, N. J.	1
Elizabeth, N. J.	1	Richmond, Va.	1
Erie, Pa.	1	Rochester, N. Y.	3
Evansville, Ind.	1	Salem, Mass.	1
Farmingham, Mass.	1	St. Paul, Minn.	2
Far Rockaway, N. Y.	1	Saratoga Springs, N. Y.	1
Fitchburg, Mass.	1	Schenectady, N. Y.	1
Fort Worth, Tex.	1	South Boston, Mass.	1
Germantown, Pa.	1	South Norwalk, Conn.	1
Haverhill, Mass.	2	Springfield, Mass.	1
Hartford, Conn.	2	Springfield, Ill.	1
Holyoke, Mass.	1	Stamford, Conn.	1
Houston, Tex.	3	Syracuse, N. Y.	3
Jacksonville, Fla.	2	Tampa, Fla.	1
Jersey City, N. J.	1	Taunton, Mass.	1
Johnstown, Pa.	1	Terre Haute, Ind.	1
Kansas City, Mo.	2	Toledo, Ohio.	5
Kensington, Pa.	1	Trenton, N. J.	1
Lancaster, Pa.	1	Troy, N. Y.	1
Lawrence, Mass.	3	Union Hill, N. J.	1
Lewiston, Me.	1	Utica, N. Y.	1
Long Island City, N. Y.	1	Washington, D. C.	9
Lowell, Mass.	2	Waterbury, Conn.	1
Lynn, Mass.	2	White Plains, N. Y.	1
Malden, Mass.	1	Wilkes-Barre, Pa.	1
Macon, Ga.	1	Wilmington, Del.	2
Manchester, N. H.	1	Worcester, Mass.	2
Memphis, Tenn.	1	Yonkers, N. Y.	1

Extent of the Chain Drug Movement.—The distribution of drug chains throughout the country, is, according to the *Druggists' Circular*, as follows:

State	Number of chains with home offices in state	Total stores in state
Alabama	3	16
Arizona	2	7
Arkansas	1	4
California	26	175
Colorado	4	25
Connecticut	5	39
Delaware	1	11
District of Columbia	3	21
Georgia	7	48
Idaho	2	12
Illinois	22	141
Indiana	13	98
Iowa	9	34
Kansas	6	22
Kentucky	10	41
Louisiana	8	44
Maryland	2	16
Massachusetts	12	88
Michigan	27	129
Minnesota	6	32
Mississippi	1	3
Missouri	12	46
Nebraska	1	4
New Jersey	4	42
New York	22	250
North Carolina	3	11
North Dakota	1	5
Ohio	30	242
Oklahoma	6	28
Oregon	2	8
Pennsylvania	24	151
Rhode Island	6	34
South Carolina	3	12
Tennessee	6	27
Texas	11	51
Utah	3	31
Virginia	2	13
Washington	9	42
West Virginia	4	15
Wisconsin	3	14

Only chains with three stores and over have been included in this compilation. About 85 per cent of all chain stores are located in the larger cities, the remaining 15 per cent being in outlying communities. Maine, Montana, New Hampshire, Nevada, New Mexico, South Dakota, Vermont, and Wyoming have no chain store organizations with headquarters in the state, but there are branches of foreign chains in Maine, New Hampshire, and Nevada. Many of the larger communities are still comparatively open for chain store exploitation, and it is, in all probability, only a question of a few years before chains will expand to fill the demand.

Chain Volume of Business.—It is difficult to make any exact calculation of the proportion of the total drug store business done by chains. From figures obtained by the *Druggists' Circular* in 1920, it was estimated that the 21 largest chain organizations were doing about 6 per cent of the total drug business. In 1923 reports were obtained from 39 small chains, operating 164 stores in all parts of the country. This showed total annual sales amounting to $12,131,000, or approximately $73,867 per store. Multiplying this by 1,177, the total number of stores in small chain groups throughout the country, the total sales of all would amount to $86,941,459.

Reports were also received from ten of the larger chains, indicating that the average business per store was approximately $148,489. As there are 803 such stores, the group would transact about $119,236,667 worth of business annually. Both small and large chains together would do a business of about $206,178,126.

According to figures from reputable sources, it is estimated that the drug stores of the country do a business of a billion dollars each year. On that basis, the 2,014 chain drug stores would transact about 20.6 per cent of this. In other words, a small fraction of the total number of druggists (about 4 per cent) is doing about a fifth of the business.

Differentiating Factors.—The differences which come about through chain operation are shown with exceptional clearness in the drug field. These may be tabulated as follows:

1. *Management.*—Operating a link in a drug chain requires a manager capable of using his own initiative on occasion. It is not possible to have the close coordination which is typical of

the grocery chain, because the market is more extended, the stock is larger, the store is larger, and other factors making management more difficult are present.

2. *Market.*—The chain drug store in the majority of cases draws customers from a broad area. The independent drug store, as a rule, is a neighborhood enterprise, and, therefore, has a certain percentage of stable patronage.

3. *Product.*—The chain drug store has had difficulty in avoiding the character of a department store. There has been a constant tendency towards diversification of merchandise carried, ranging from fresh eggs to phonographs. There has also been a pronounced trend towards the soda fountain and away from the prescription counter. In many cases this is regarded as mistaken policy, as, without the prescription counter, the drug store loses its individuality. Some drug chains have introduced lunch counters, which serve sandwiches and salads, in addition to the various beverages. The success of this feature depends largely upon the location of the store.

At present, drug store merchandise is not standardized. The buyers for each chain decide what their stores can sell, and purchase accordingly. Customers have grown into the habit of going to the drug store to obtain merchandise of almost every character. Chain stores usually establish by experiment what lines can be carried with profit, in addition to the regular merchandise normally associated with a drug store. Writing paper is universally stocked. Hair nets and similar merchandise are sold. Toilet articles are normally a part of the stock.

The variety of stock may be determined by watching competitors, or by tabulating the unfilled wants of customers.

4. *Location.*—The transient character of the majority of chain drug customers, and the convenience character of the majority of stock carried, make it necessary to pay especial attention to location. Even the independent druggist recognized this fact, as the term "corner drug store" indicates. Up to this time, chain drug stores have sought out busy downtown corners, where the largest amount of traffic passes. There is a definite limit, however, to this phase of development, and the time should shortly come when suburban districts will be more largely exploited by chains.

5. *Merchandising Policies.*—The chain drug store is ordinarily far more progressive than its independent competitors. Like the chain grocery store, it often relies on loss leaders to increase its sales of longer profit items. It is often a consistent price cutter, and, as such, is a thorn in the side of manufacturers with price-maintenance policies. By manufacturing its own brands (such as Rexall), or by purchasing them at wholesale and affixing its own brands, it often finds a means of making its individuality felt in the community where it operates. Window display forms an important part of the merchandising program. Purchases are made, as a rule, at jobbers' discounts.

6. *Advertising.*—The chain store ordinarily makes a point of advertising, while few independent druggists feel they can afford the expense. The chain, owing to its metropolitan location, can take full pages in the daily papers, and be sure that the results from such advertising will accrue to its several stores. It does happen occasionally that an independent store, desirous of obtaining a reputation as a price cutter, will run cut-price advertisements, but these attempts are rare and not always successful.

The majority of chain drug advertising has been devoted to offering special items, but there is a pronounced tendency towards institutional publicity. The company desires to build up a conception in the mind of the public which will be of permanent value in determining purchases. For example, the Scholtz-Mutual Drug Company, of Colorado, used a page advertisement which, in addition to prices, emphasized the freshness of its merchandise, and the reason why such freshness was especially desirable for drug store stocks. The advertisement read in part:

> Mutual Stores volume in sales has reached such proportions as to make the storage of merchandise entirely unnecessary. (A page advertisement.)
>
> Merchandise flows directly from manufacturers to our store shelves; there are no accumulations of reserve stocks to grow stale awaiting sale; no warehousing charges to add to the goods.
>
> Freshness is measured by days and hours, as 89.6 per cent of our goods are sold every nine days. Many goods come fresh from our own manufacturing laboratories daily, where over 200 products are made.

The Owl Drug Company quotes in its advertising a part of its sales manual devoted to service to customers:

SERVICE

Each member of our organization is valuable only in proportion to his ability to Serve our Customers.

Every store has just one important thing to sell in addition to its merchandise.

That one thing is *Service.*

The store that sells poor Service is a poor store.

The store that sells good Service is a good store.

The object of the Company is to sell its customers the very best service in the world.

It rests with every employee of the store—the manager, the floormen, the salesmen, the stock clerks, the telephone girls and the delivery boys —whether the customer is disappointed or pleased.

The customer pays your salary.

Any member of our organization who lacks the intelligence to interpret the feeling of goodwill that the Company holds toward its customers should not expect to stay here very long.

The Employee who helps to perpetuate this plan is never out of a job.

Conclusions.—The situation in the drug field may be summed up as follows:

1. There is but one large chain in the field, 34 chains with over 10 stores, and a large number of chains with from 3 to 9 stores.

2. The drug chains have as yet availed themselves of only a small part of the total possibilities.

3. There is a tendency to enlarge the number of stores per chain, as well as the number of chains.

4. The chain drug store has advantage over its independent competitor in location, sales turnover, advertising, management, and knowledge of the principles of retail store operation.

5. There are certain obstacles to drug chain development. In the first place, once suburban locations are occupied, it may prove difficult to secure an adequate volume of business from suburban sites. In the second place, the great number of articles carried in stock tends to prevent a rapid turnover, while tying up a large amount of capital in inventory. In the third place, it is often difficult to secure the right type of manager.

CHAPTER XXIV

THE FIVE-TEN-TWENTY-FIVE-CENT STORE CHAINS

The five-and-ten-cent store chain differs from the drug and grocery chains not so much in principles of operation as in physical characteristics. There is the same necessity for careful accounting and for routine practice but there are certain factors which complicate the situation, such as the following:

1. The five-and-ten-cent store chain has a labor problem. Each five-and-ten-cent store has in its employ a certain number of clerks, usually a less highly trained selling type, working for lower wages.

2. The size of each unit in a five-and-ten-cent store is inevitably large, and because of the wide variety of goods carried it is necessary to secure requisite turnover.

3. Goods are sold at a fixed price—5, 10, 25 cents— or in some cases the stress is laid on the odd cents—3, 9, and 19 cents. The price problem is at once made simpler and more difficult. The labor of registering and following up constant price changes is removed, but, on the other hand, a sufficient variety of goods must be found to retail at these fixed prices.

4. A five-and-ten-cent store satisfies a much larger area than either the grocery or the drug chain store. But because all classes of small articles used in everyday life are sold, that is, convenience goods, the five-and-ten-cent stores have been able to operate profitably in communities with 8,000 inhabitants. Contrary to other types of chains, the five-and-ten-cent store originated in a small town in Pennsylvania, and it was some time before it was operated in large cities. But the necessary distance of the various units of these chains from other units of the same chain causes a more decentralized organization. Each manager has more responsibility.

The Field.—The size, the territory covered, and the publicity connected with the operations of a few of the largest chains in the field have almost made it appear as though this class of chains was limited to a few strikingly successful examples, and that the field was entirely closed to the "little fellow." As a

matter of fact, however, there are many small chains. The following table will give some idea of the chains in the field. It has been difficult to obtain the statistics for this tabulation, which is at best an approximation.

Company	Head office	Number of stores
F. W. Woolworth Company[1]	New York City	1,260
S. S. Kresge Company	Detriot, Mich.	243
McCrory Stores Corporation	New York City	170
S. H. Kress	New York City	150
Metropolitan Stores		82
McLellan Stores Company	New York City	50
W. T. Grant 25 Cent Stores	New York City	61
P. C. Murphy	Pittsburgh, Pa.	43
Duke & Ayers, Inc	Dallas, Tex.	29
Graham Latimer	Ottumwa, Iowa	20
F. & W. Grand 5, 10, 25 Cent Stores	New York City	19
Morris 5 & 10 Cent Stores	Bluffton, Ind.	19
J. J. Newberry & Company	Stroudsburg, Pa.	18
Spurgeon Mercantile Company	Chicago, Ill.	15
A. L. Duckwall Stores Company	Abilene, Tex.	12
H. L. McElroy Company	Bowling Green, Ky.	11
National 5, 10 & 25 Cent Stores	Omaha, Neb.	11
Read Stores Company	Kansas	11
Trick Brothers Company	Benton Harbor, Mich.	9
Charles Tremayn's Stores	Ashley, Pa.	8
Kuhn's 5, 10 & 25 Cent Stores	Nashville, Tenn.	8
Wm. H. Cobb	Sharon Hill, Pa.	7
Greene Brothers	Lowell, Mass.	7
Taylor, Knobel Company, Inc.	Tacoma, Wash.	7
Trimmers Stores	Carlisle, Pa.	6
Hested Stores Company	Fairbury, Neb.	6
John W. Tottle	Baltimore, Md.	6
A. A. Grimes 10 Cent Stores Company	Kansas City, Mo.	
F. E. Nelson Company	Manchester, N. H.	6
L. J. Everett Corporation	Jamestown, N. Y.	6
W. W. Joseph 5 & 10	Pittsburgh, Pa.	5
Schulz Brothers & Company	Chicago, Ill.	5
J. Da Silva	Freeport, N. Y.	5
Neel Cunningham	Chicago, Ill.	5
Acme 5 & 10 Cent Stores	Philadelphia, Pa.	5

[1] Operates also 126 stores in England.

There are many additional chains operating four, three, and two stores, but the above list is sufficient to give an idea of the competition. The five-and-ten-cent store field seems to be essentially the small town, of which there are so many in Pennsylvania and the Middle West.

Most of these stores never advertise and thus local chains are not known beyond the precincts of the territory they serve. The store is usually well located, painted in brilliant colors, usually red, and its window display well taken care of.

The F. W. Woolworth Company.—F. W. Woolworth made himself one of the best known men in America out of nickels and dimes. He lived to see the completion of the Woolworth Building, the highest edifice in the world, and the opening of the chain's thousandth store on Fifth Avenue, New York. The story of his rise to success has often been told, but a book dealing with chain stores would be incomplete without it.

Mr. Woolworth was born in Rodman, Jefferson County, New York, in 1852. He was the son of a farmer and was brought up on a farm. But his ambitions lay along business lines. He took a course in a commercial college at Watertown, N. Y., and then went to work with the dry goods firm of Augsbury & Moore at Watertown. The first three months he received no salary. Then he was paid $3.50 a week. After two and one-half years he was receiving $6 a week. W. H. Moore, when he was earning $10 a week in 1877, gave him an opportunity to rearrange the stock in the store. He did this, making up a five-cent table with a price card inviting customers to take their choice. Mr. Moore was induced to back a five-cent store in Utica, N. Y., but sales were not large enough to carry the store. It was closed. Woolworth immediately started another store in Lancaster, Pa., which sold out over 30 per cent of the stock on the first day. Sales for the first year were $6,750. This was the first five-and-ten-cent store in successful operation.

Mr. Woolworth was wise enough to see the vast possibilities ahead of him, but he had no organization and no financial backing. He first took his brother, C. S. Woolworth, into partnership with him in a store in Harrisburg, Pa. This store was unsuccessful. It was closed and another opened in Scranton, Pa., which quickly established itself. In July, 1886, a small office was opened in New York.

The early growth of the present Woolworth chain was due to the training of men in the organization who later established chains of their own, culminating in the final merger of 1912. S. H. Knox, Mr. Woolworth's cousin, joined Mr. Woolworth, and was associated with him for five years until 1889, when he started for himself.

Carson H. Peck was next taken from the Utica store and was brought to New York to help manage the stores and buy merchandise. F. M. Kirby started in with C. S. Woolworth in Scranton, Pa., where his entire office furniture was an old dry goods box. Earle P. Charlton started with Mr. Knox and chose the New England field for exploitation, beginning business for himself in 1896. After the division of the stores, Mr. Charlton extended his activities to California and the Pacific Coast. Thus, from the Woolworth organization has developed five successful chains. The national aspect of the Woolworth chain has already been discussed in connection with the merger of 1912.

Hubert T. Parson, now president of the F. W. Woolworth Company, started with Mr. Woolworth in 1892 as an accountant. He became secretary of F. W. Woolworth & Company, and at the time of the merger naturally became secretary of the enlarged company.

The Woolworth chain, like the Liggett chain, is far ahead of all competitors in the field, and, like the Liggett chain, is a combination of stores. While the Liggett stores have invaded England, the Woolworth stores have gone into Canada.

The S. S. Kresge Company.—S. S. Kresge started in the five-and-ten-cent store business in partnership with J. G. McCrory, in Memphis, Tenn. A second store was opened in Detroit, Mich. In 1899, by an exchange of interests, Kresge became the sole owner of the Detroit store. By 1912 the number of stores had grown to 60, doing a gross business of $10,000,000 a year.

Shortly after the outbreak of the war it was decided to abandon the 10-cent limit. At first a 25-cent limit was made, but this proved to be so successful that it was decided to start a separate chain of stores with a dollar limit, except in millinery, where hats were sold in season for as high as $4.98. The result was that in 1917 the gross sales of the chain were over $30,000,000, with

a net profit of $1,720,000. In 1922, including the sale of merchandise from 5 cents to $1, the gross sales were over $65,000,000. In the fall of 1924, the Kresge chain counted 243 stores against 164 in 1917. The reason for this growth, according to the vice-president of the company, was that the chain was catering to a larger proportion of customers' needs. People were ready to buy goods in the higher price ranges. The formation of the Kresge Department Stores, Inc., is discussed in the following chapter.

The chain is noted for the progressiveness of its policies. In locating the five-and-ten-cent stores, the value of the location is determined by the number of women passing the store on foot during the whole day. But corner sites are not often taken, and never if more expensive than a site in the middle of the block. For the 25 cent to $1 store, it is not usual to pay as high a rent as for the five-and-ten-cent variety, because purchases are made mainly because of a previously formed intention, and location is not of such great importance.

The policy of the chain is to buy only according to needs, and to buy quantities just large enough to secure the maximum advantage in price. Untried articles are never purchased without testing them first among the best stores to see how they sell.

The Kresge chain has been distinguished by its attention to personnel. Mr. Kresge says that the skill of the manager can make a difference of at least 25 per cent in the business of a store. Hence, the greatest care is taken in securing managerial talent.

Five-and-ten-cent Store Policies.—More than any other type of chain retailing organization, except for the self-service store, the five-and-ten-cent store relies on the goods to sell themselves. The constant object of the chain management should be to secure articles which sell easily. And practically the whole secret of the five-and-ten-cent stores' selling program is display. Beginning with the windows, which are changed weekly, the whole store is arranged with the one idea of displaying goods to the best advantage. Each counter is a miniature store in itself with articles arranged according to their display value. Traffic routes should be and ordinarily are studied with a view to arranging the location of the merchandise. Mention has already been made of the necessity of having jewelry in the front, and the policy of putting household goods in the basement.

The fundamental rule, therefore, for a five-and-ten-cent store is to choose merchandise which will sell and display it where the public can see it to the best advantage.

The second fundamental is the facilitating of sales by having the customer pick out the article desired and handing it to the salesgirl with the money.

FIG. 66.—Selling peanut brittle through Woolworth store.

All five-and-ten-cent stores are cash-and-carry.

The window display of the five-and-ten-cent store chains is always attractive, because of the number of articles displayed, the brilliant coloring, or the idea behind the display. Figure 66 shows a window display in the Woolworth store at Los Angeles, Cal. The large card carries the words: "We sold ninety million pounds of candy last year." The safe in the center of the dis-

play was made entirely out of peanut brittle and was an exact duplicate of a real office safe. The combination and handle were made of white candy, as was also the lettering on the top of the safe. Coins were tumbling out of the safe into the large plate, made also of peanut brittle. The idea behind the whole display was that the public could bank on Woolworth candy as evidenced by popular approval in the form of the ninety million pounds of candy sold the year before.

The Labor Problem.—The five-and-ten-cent store normally has to contend with lack of interest and ignorance of the sales girls. The lack of interest is due to the small wages paid and the ignorance is, in great part, due to the large labor turnover. The low wages have been caused by a general feeling that since the goods were of such a nature that no sales effort was necessary, the class of girl hired could be of an inferior type. The natural result is an inefficient clerk.

The New York State Department of Labor investigators found that thieving was included by almost every manager as one of his greatest problems. The universal display of goods and indiscriminate use of cash registers make thieving comparatively easy. Both salesgirls and the public take things. One manager resorted to weekly inventories and shrinkage reports to check up losses apparently due to thieving. One store manager placed an empty box, done up carefully in paper and string, on a front counter. It promptly vanished and in the course of a half hour 22 of these empty boxes had disappeared.

Much of the ignorance, dishonesty, and lack of interest among the salesgirls can undoubtedly be removed if the turnover is stabilized, and by the introduction of carefully planned methods of employment, as suggested in the chapters dealing with personnel problems.

The wages paid are ordinarily as low as possible. The high turnover tends to create plasticity in wages. The five-and-ten-cent store will pay just enough to give it a sufficient supply of girls, with rarely any attempt at making them permanent workers.

The following tabulation shows the wages of women employees in a representative five-and-ten-cent store in a small city in New York State, as tabulated by the New York State Department of Labor, division of Women in Industry.

WOMEN'S WAGES IN A REPRESENTATIVE 5-AND-10-CENT STORE IN A TOWN OF THE SECOND SCHEDULE

1915–1921

Wage rate	Number of women						
	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921
$ 4– 4.99	10	8					
5– 5.99	8	4	2	2			
6– 6.99	8	7	19	11			
7– 7.99	1	2	3	6	11		
8– 8.99	..	1	1	2	4	5	
9– 9.99	1	..	..	1	3	4	
10– 10.99	..	1	1	..	2	1	9
11– 12.00	1	..	..	1	2	4	7
12– 12.99	..	..	..	..	2	2	
13– 13.99	..	..	..	1	..	1	
14– 14.99	..	..	..	..	..	..	4
15– 15.99	..	..	..	..	1		
16– 16.99	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
17– 17.99	..	..	..	..	..	1	
18– 18.99	..	..	..	..	1		
19– 19.99	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
20– 20.99	..	..	..	..	..	1	
Total	29	23	26	24	26	19	22
Median wage	$5.56	$5.88	$6.76	$6.86	$8.38	$10.00	$11.22

With the advance in wages from 1915 on, the number of employees fell off. While there were 29 in 1915, there were but 19 in 1920. That is, the decrease in the number of employees nearly kept pace with the wage increase. It would be interesting to have figures on sales in this store, to see whether higher wages were conducive to sales efficiency or the opposite.

There is a tendency in the five-and-ten-cent store chains, as in department store and other retailing agencies, to better the condition of the salespeople. It is recognized, at least in theory, that they have a right to a living wage and the policy of store

managers to make a good showing by reducing salaries of his salesgirls to the minimum is frowned upon, and justly so.

The S. S. Kresge Company, according to an article by President Kresge in *System*, aims to treat anyone entering one of its stores as an honored guest. With this in mind, the following rules have been formulated in regard to the relations of customers and clerks:

1. In approaching a customer a sales clerk is required to ask in a manner as pleasant as the words: "May I wait on you, please?" We have found that it does not do at all to leave the approach to the individual whim. If we do that a girl may go up and with the best intentions in the world say: "Do you want anything?" or perhaps pointedly give the impression that the prospect is an intruder and had better buy or get out. We have tried a number of expressions; some were too friendly, others sounded importunate, and others went above the customer's head. We have found that the simple, friendly: "May I wait on you, please?" fills every requirement.

2. To treat every customer as though she had $25 in her pocket and was going to spend it in the store. Salespeople are rarely judges of character; but usually they think that they are—which causes much of what trouble we have. The purchaser of 5 cents' worth is entitled to exactly the same treatment as the purchaser of $25 worth, but it is only by insisting that, regardless of clothing, regardless of everything, the customer is to be regarded as a $25 one that we are able to get uniform treatment.

3. That change must be counted into the hand, starting with the amount of the purchase and counting up to the bill or coin given. This is a friendly way of counting; it gives the idea of personal interest, of a realization of the value of money—and, of course, it avoids mistakes. At the end of the counting the clerk says: "Thank you, call again." It is hard to enforce the "Thank you" rule under ordinary circumstances; but when the change is counted it becomes almost automatic.

Hours.—There is no set time for opening or closing five-and-ten-cent stores. In general, they conform to the custom of the community. As a rule, stores in large cities open at nine o'clock and close at five or six, but in small cities and towns the hours are apt to be longer. In the majority of small towns the stores must remain open Saturday afternoon while in cities they usually close during the summer. Stores of the same chain, one in a residential district and one in a business district, may keep

different hours although in the same city. Independent stores are likely to keep longer hours than the chain stores.

The amount of actual sales in five-and-ten-cent stores is small before 10 a. m., but clerks must be on hand at 8:30 or 9 a.m. to prepare for the day's business, restock counters, etc. Customers begin to come in large numbers from 11 a. m. on.

Figure 67 is taken from the New York Department of Labor investigation and shows the working hours of men and women

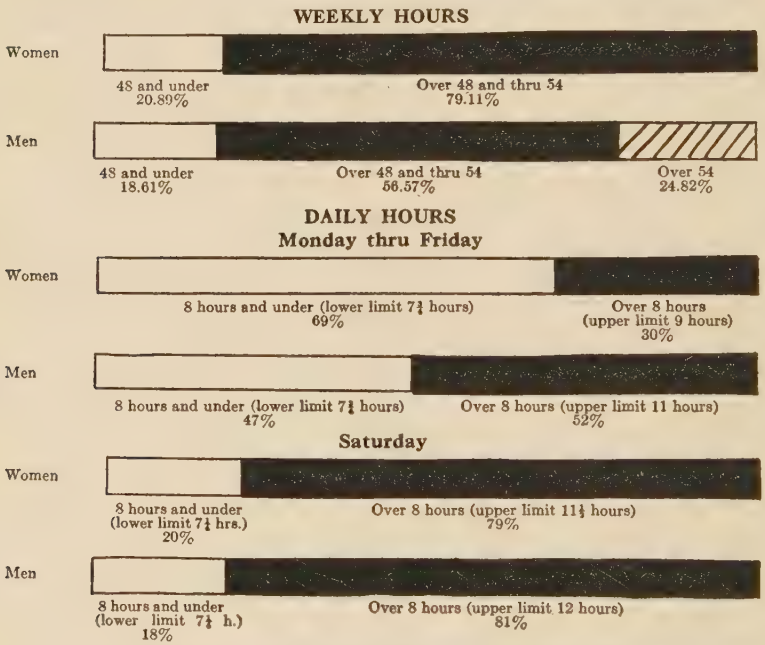

WEEKLY HOURS
Women
48 and under 20.89%
Over 48 and thru 54 79.11%
Men
48 and under 18.61%
Over 48 and thru 54 56.57%
Over 54 24.82%
DAILY HOURS
Monday thru Friday
Women
8 hours and under (lower limit 7¼ hours) 69%
Over 8 hours (upper limit 9 hours) 30%
Men
8 hours and under (lower limit 7¼ hours) 47%
Over 8 hours (upper limit 11 hours) 52%
Saturday
Women
8 hours and under (lower limit 7¼ hrs.) 20%
Over 8 hours (upper limit 11¼ hours) 79%
Men
8 hours and under (lower limit 7¼ h.) 18%
Over 8 hours (upper limit 12 hours) 81%

Fig. 67.—Schedule of working hours in five-and-ten-cent store chains.

for the entire week, for Monday through Friday, and for Saturday alone.

Approximately 80 per cent of the women worked over 48 hours a week. From Monday through Friday 30 per cent worked more than 8 hours a day but with an upper limit of 9 hours. Sixty-nine per cent worked under 8 hours but at least as much as 7¾. The men worked longer, 52 per cent of them working over 8 hours with upper limit of 11 hours. On Saturdays it was appar-

ent that everybody was worked to the limit. Sixteen per cent worked 11 hours a day and 51 per cent worked 10 hours.

The best wages were found to be in stores with the shortest hours, and workers were paid less where hours were longest.

Price and Manufacturing.—Before the war, some chains had gone up to a 25-cent limit but many remained at the 10-cent limit. Now the F. W. Woolworth Company is practically alone in pursuing the 10-cent policy. All its competitors, although still calling themselves 5-, 10-, and 25-cent chains, in reality have raised the price as high as $1 or over. It was discovered that the average sale of the department store is under $1 and the chains immediately capitalized this point and branched out more in the line of dry goods and less in that of crockery and glass.

That this price widening has been successful is proved by the record of the stores that have followed this policy, particularly the Kresge organization. But that goods can still be made and sold at retail for 10 cents is also conclusively proved by the Woolworth organization, the profits of which have steadily gone on. There is evidently a field for both types of chains. The Kresge stores and others following the higher-price policy are able to offer goods which naturally the Woolworth stores cannot do. But there are many staple articles which can be made to retail at 10 cents and these will always prove a definite drawing card, even for the chains with higher-priced policies.

While the war forced many chains to raise their price limit, the Woolworth Company adopted the policy of manufacturing those things which it could not induce others to manufacture. When the war made it impossible to get any more D.M.C. crochet cotton, it induced a manufacturer to devote his whole spinning output to making crochet cotton which the Woolworth chain put out under the private brand name of "Woolco." By following this policy of having articles manufactured under contract exclusively to meet their own demands, the Woolworth organization is taking a long step forward.

The small variety chain cannot hope to practice such economies, but it has the advantages and the disadvantages of the fixed price. Unquestionably, the low-price appeal of the five-and-ten-cent store has proved its greatest sales asset.

The Manufacturer and the "Five-and-ten."—It was a long time before manufacturers could be brought to see the advantage of producing articles that could be retailed for 10 cents. It is true that all manufacturers cannot modify their products to meet this need, but many can, and many are doing so at the present moment.

It is a rule of selling that the best known article, and the one with the best reputation, will sell better than the unknown, unheralded product, no matter how good the latter may be. Therefore, manufacturers must come up to the standard of excellence set by the five-and-ten-cent stores. Their products must sell themselves, and they must pave the way for this sale by publicity, and they must keep the way paved so that this article will sell. The weak point so far has proved to be when the manufacturer desired to sample his article where its hold was weakest. This is in direct opposition to the policy of the chain to sell it where it is strongest. The natural result is that, as all the stores in the chain do not necessarily sell the same articles, the samples are sold only where the demand proves satisfactory, and the manufacturer is brought up sharply where he was in the beginning. His product will sell only where his publicity has been successful.

Publicity must precede distribution through 10-cent-store chains. Otherwise the samples cannot compete with already established lines.

Mention has been made elsewhere of the value to the manufacturer of this sampling and the publicity it gives the product. The customer in the 10-cent store sees an article on display with a familiar name. It costs only 10 cents. She buys it, likes it, and the next time it is more than likely that she will purchase a full-sized package through the regular channels.

Sampling pays both the 10-cent stores and the manufacturer. It gives him the prestige incident to carrying a well-known brand. It relieves him of the imputation of retailing only cheap articles.

Stock.—The five-and-ten-cent store is and should be an exact reflection of the community's likes and dislikes. This is more easily attained in individual five-and-ten-cent stores because of the wider scope allowed the manager in selecting his goods. Allowance also is made for small communities, where, naturally,

stock turnover must be more closely watched than it is in cities where slower moving articles can be merchandised profitably.

The arrangement of stock is particularly important in the five-and-ten-cent store. The following alignment was used by the W. T. Grant Company for its store in New Orleans, ranging from front of the store to the rear:

Cut glass, ribbons, jewelry, candy, neckwear, toilet articles, and art goods.
Hosiery, bargain counters, gifts.
Sheet music, leather goods, books and stationery, notions, laces, and phonograph records.
Handkerchiefs, across the store.
Toys, knit underwear, radio, men's and boys' furnishings, glassware, and crockery.
Electric appliances, bargain counter, and millinery.
Paints and brushes, hardware, infants' wear, muslin wear.
Rugs and carpets, bargain counters, piano rolls.
Auto accessories, house furnishings, domestics, and draperies.
And across the rear, enameled and galvanized ware.

Five-and-ten-cent chains frequently grant temporary concessions to manufacturers. They are considered excellent publicity and in many cases serve as a drawing card for the store rather than as an attempt to sell the goods. The arrangement ordinarily is that, after the concessionaire moves on, the chain is given the agency and a certain percentage of profits made during the concession.

Permanent concessions often form miniature chains within chains. This may be true of the music counter which is run by a special company having a branch in each of the stores. Such a department is considered an added attraction and an inducement for customers to come to the store. A singer will often draw a crowd to the store. One chain grants a grocery concession in its stores as a drawing card.

Conclusions.—The newcomer in the variety field has much to contend with—strong competition, efficient methods, operating economy, large stock, etc. But there are also some points in his favor. By carefully choosing his location he may be sure of a certain percentage of trade. The five-and-ten-cent store as a

non-advertiser must rely on location. A customer will not normally walk out of his way to trade at one five-and-ten-cent store rather than at another. He goes to buy a certain staple article and he expects to find it at any five-and-ten store rather than at a particular one.

The newcomer should also be able to procure a standard stock to sell within the prescribed price limits. But such a venture necessarily demands a certain minimum of capital without which it would be folly to begin.

CHAPTER XXV

DRY GOODS AND APPAREL CHAINS

The selling of dry goods and clothing, shoes, hats, etc. has, from the earliest times, always been an important retailing activity and it is to be expected that the chain should have made considerable inroads in these fields. Whenever the question of public taste enters the selling equation, however, there are new difficulties to surmount. The ordinary forms of clothing are not convenience goods, but rather shopping lines. Therefore, the turnover is likely to be slowed down. A customer does not come in and say, "I will take this or that." He says, "Let me look at this or that," and, if it does not suit, he goes away. Therefore, the problem of the chain retailer of dry goods and clothing is to pick out only those lines which the majority of people will choose. That is, there must be no ultra styles, there must be no odd sizes, and the stock must be limited in the supply of seasonal goods to what surely can be sold. Dry goods and clothing chains cannot afford to purchase far ahead. The Penney chain, which has been the most successful in the dry goods field, makes it one of its cardinal policies to buy no more than is immediately needed.

Another point which may cause difficulties to the dry goods chain is a difference of demand in different sections. This can be overcome only by allowing the local manager considerable latitude in his choice of stock. Although there may be a central purchasing organization, still that body acts in the closest cooperation with the local stores, and buys only what is certain to be approved by local managers. Even shoe manufacturers running their own local retail stores are careful to consult the local manager in advance of manufacture about styles for the coming season.

In shoe chains, the type of demand may be different in one section of the town from what it is in another. Hat chains, haberdashery chains, and clothing chains have many seasonal problems to meet.

This type of chain, retailing shopping lines, has to do a great deal of advertising, and, consequently, it is possible that in some cases location may not play so important a part. In the Penney chain, for example, the appeal is through price and quality.

Shoe stores, however, retailing cheap shoes, which come practically under the class of convenience goods, must find suitable locations. All stores, of course, must locate in the section devoted to the trade they wish to capture. A shoe store retailing quality ladies' shoes would be out of place in the financial district.

In the dry goods store the control is far more decentralized than in the haberdashery, the hat, or the shoe store. The dry goods store usually has but one link in a town, while the other types of store have several. In general, the manager of the dry goods store hires his own clerks, chooses, if not purchases, his own merchandise, pays his incidental expenses, attends to local advertising, etc.

Even where chains have gained strong hold in dry goods and clothing lines, the general policy has always been to sell only the standard styles and sizes and at low or moderate prices.

The Department Store Chain.—According to Dr. Paul H. Nystrom, managing director of the Retail Research Association, the most rapid growth in chain stores is taking place in the dry goods and apparel field. It is his opinion that chain expansion will continue as long as the average managing ability of the independent store management is lower than the organized ability of the chain organizations, and as long as the buying power of the chains gives them an advantage over independent stores.

There are several types of chains selling dry goods:

1. The small-unit standardized type. This class of store carries merchandise in the lower-priced classes, in standard styles and sizes, employs few clerks, is largely located in small towns, generally in the South and Middle West, Pennsylvania, and New York. Purchasing is ordinarily done at headquarters, and close watch is kept of individual store operation by careful accounting methods. This type of dry goods store is in direct competition with the small independent dry goods stores to be found in medium-sized towns. The Penney chain is the best known of this type.

2. The large-unit decentralized type. A number of groups of the large department stores have found it advantageous to form associations for research and quantity buying. Also a number of groups are under one financial control, but each store is independently operated. There is much question whether this control is sufficient to entitle the organization to the name of a chain.

3. The large-unit centralized type. One of the most interesting developments in the chain method of distribution has been the sudden interest in the possibilities offered for a chain of department stores, each department of which forms an inner chain. If there are ten stores, each of which has 50 departments, there will be 50 subchains within the larger organization. According to the present plan, ten department stores with 50 departments each would mean approximately 500 buyers, while under the chain plan it would mean only 50 buyers. Furthermore, the quantity discounts to be obtained would be much larger, and the economies due to centralized managerial control would also be great.

Some of the largest stores in the country are interested in this development. E. A. Filene, president of Wm. Filene's Sons, of Boston, Mass., predicts that the department store must adopt chain methods if it is to maintain its present leadership in the retail field. S. S. Kresge has formed a company and purchased two of the large department stores of the country, with the intention of adding to them as the opportunity presents itself. Gimbel Brothers have merged their New York and Philadelphia stores, and have also acquired control of Saks & Company. The National Department Stores, composed of stores formerly belonging to the Affiliated Retail Stores and to the Frank & Seder group, have been organized. The May Department Stores have purchased Hamburgers in Los Angeles. Under the name of the City Stores Company, three of the large southern stores—Loveman, Joseph & Loeb of Birmingham; Maison Blanche of New Orleans, and B. Lowenstein of Memphis—have combined. R. H. Macy & Company, Inc. of New York, has purchased a substantial interest in the LaSalle & Koch store of Toledo, Ohio. Scruggs-Vandervoort-Barney of St. Louis has acquired the S. L. White Company of Columbus, and the Denver Dry Goods Company of Denver.

	Location	Number of stores
Anderson, C. C. & Co.	Boise, Idaho	11
Anderson, Dulin, Varnell Company	Southern states	29
Associated Dry Goods Company	New York	9
Belk Brothers Organization	North Carolina	45
Buchanan Company	Hillsdale, Mich.—Illinois	8
Broadwell's	California	4
Clarke Brothers	Pennsylvania	32
Consolidated Dry Goods Company	Western Massachusetts and up-state New York	5
W. P. Chamberlain Company	New Hampshire and Vermont	8
Cole Brothers	Missouri and Kansas	6
Cherry's	California, Oregon, and Washington	6
Chaffee	Central New York State	4
Clarke Brothers	Pennsylvania	9
Denton Company	Cincinnati, Ohio	4
Dives, Pomeroy & Stewart	Pennsylvania	5
Edwards Chain Stores	New York	4
Efirds Department Stores, Inc	North and South Carolina	33
Emrich chain	Illinois	6
Fair Store Corporation	Arkansas	65
D. G. Fowler Company	Pennsylvania and Indiana	7
Genungs	White Plains, N. Y.	6
Gimbel Brothers	.....	3
Graham, Sykes Company	Texas and Oklahoma	7
J. M. Gidding Company	New York, Duluth, Philadelphia, and Cincinnati	4
Goodnow-Pearson Company	Fitchburg, Mass.	13
Gilmer's, Inc	North and South Carolina	18
Kline's	Middle West	4
The Hect Company	Baltimore, Md.	7
Irwin Cloak Company	Ohio and Missouri	3
M. Lurie & Company	Up-state New York	14
Lynch-Fuller Corporation	Western New York	5
May Department Stores Company	Middle West	5
Mercantile Stores Corporation	New York National	25
W. H. McAllister	Sycamore, Ill.	20
Morris Company	Bluffton, Md.	33
National Department Stores	.....	10
Oppenheim, Collins	New York	6
Parke, Snow, Inc	Boston, Mass	8
J. C. Penney Company	Middle West and West	571
D. Price & Company	New York	3
Rorabaugh Company	Kansas, Illinois, and Oklahoma	8
Ross Stores, Inc	New Jersey and New York	5
D. G. Ramsey Brothers	Kansas and Missouri	5
Sadowsky group	.....	8
Smith Brothers Company	Pennsylvania	6
John Stillman	Michigan and Indiana	4
Albert Steiger Company	Springfield, Mass.	7
Seitner & Company	Canton, Ohio	3
Union Supply Company	Pittsburgh	95
Weiler Syndicate	Indiana, Illinois, and Ohio	7

All these mergers point to but one conclusion—that the department stores of the country have awakened to the necessity of obtaining the economies of mass selling and centralized management.

The list on page 408 contains the names of some of the more prominent chains in the field.

This list, like other lists of chain stores, is not complete because of the constant changes which are taking place in the chain store field. Old chains are constantly adding new links, absorbing other stores or chains, or new chains are rising up.

The dry goods field is still the field of the small chain, and how far the chain idea can be applied to the department store, properly so-called, has not been settled.

The J. C. Penney Company.—The growth of the J. C. Penney Company from one store to 571 in 22 years has attracted a great deal of attention. E. C. Sams, president of the company, sums up its aims as follows in the *Annals of the American Academy of Social and Political Science:*

1. To establish selling on a strictly honorable basis, uniform in the standard of service available at every store. The Golden Rule is the only standard acceptable with us. Every customer is entitled to courteous treatment, efficient service, maximum values, and, in fact, every advantage which the scientific study of our business will permit.

2. To maintain a community survey whereby we shall be alert to community preferences and capacities in buying. As stewards of the buying public it is our business to safeguard their interests. Thus is the overhead charge kept at a minimum figure.

3. To charge only a reasonable profit on each sale. Thus, we give the customer the advantage of our experience in buying and selling. He repays us not only by giving us his continued and substantial patronage, but by sending additional customers to us. There is a unique satisfaction in this method of selling.

4. To work for the upbuilding of every community in which we are represented. We urge that our managers must prove themselves to be as worthy in citizenship as they are in business. They are in reality partners in our organization, and when we pay taxes in the community we wish to see personal effort employed to justify the investment made.

5. To employ local salespeople whenever possible. However, they must measure up to the high standards we have already found advisable. We pay good salaries, always equal those paid by other merchants and,

in addition, a bonus is paid the women, with a possible manager-partnership as the reward for the men who qualify with us.

6. Constantly to seek improved methods of selling, more expert buying, to standardize all proved methods by means of educational bulletins,

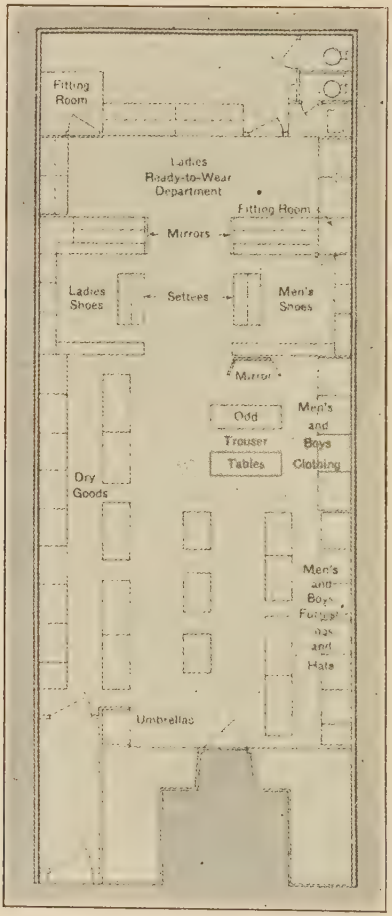


Fig. 68.—Layout for Penney store. (*System.*)

house organ, and a training course provided for all employees. We try to instill into every salesperson the desire not only to sell but *to serve*. We insist that he shall be more than an average clerk. That he shall carefully consider the customer's interests. To this end we endeavor constantly to improve the standards of service and to maintain it uni-

formly good in all stores. Our Business Training Course of 17 lessons (free to all associates) thus produces a concerted effort in all communities where we operate.

The detailed growth of the stores and volume of business, year by year, follows:

Year	Number of stores	Gross business
1902	1	$ 28,398
1903	1	63,522
1904	2	94,165
1905	2	97,653
1906	2	127,128
1907	2	166,313
1908	4	218,432
1909	6	310,062
1910	14	662,331
1911	22	1,183,279
1912	34	2,050,641
1913	48	2,636,920
1914	71	3,560,293
1915	86	4,825,072
1916	127	8,415,877
1917	177	14,880,965
1918	197	21,336,795
1919	[1]197	28,778,230
1920	297	42,822,564
1921	312	46,641,928
1922	312	49,035,729
1923	475	62,188,978
1924	571	

[1] No stores were opened in 1919, following the World War.

Figure 68 shows a typical layout for a Penney store.

Men's Wear and Haberdashery.—There have been small chains dealing in men's wear, mostly local, for years. It is only in the past few years that a number of chains have sprung up and spread with great rapidity. Their growth has been almost too large for safety, but war conditions helped them along and enabled them to get on their feet before the period of deflation came. The chain haberdashery stores get as close as possible to the convenience class. A man will buy a shirt, a collar or a

necktie at almost any store, while he will go out of his way to buy a suit of clothes.

The following five chains deserve mention:

Chain Shirt Shops, Inc., New York City	16
Weber & Heilbroner, New York City	12
United Shirt Shops, New York City	16
Paramount Shirt Shops, New York City	10
Bedford Shirt Company, Chicago	7

There are, in addition, many small chains, with two, three, four, or five member stores, all apparently prosperous, but showing little signs of further expansion.

The Chain Shirt Shops, Inc. is controlled by the Phillips-Jones Corporation, manufacturers of shirts, etc. In a sense, therefore, it is a manufacturer's chain, although the control is only through stock ownership.

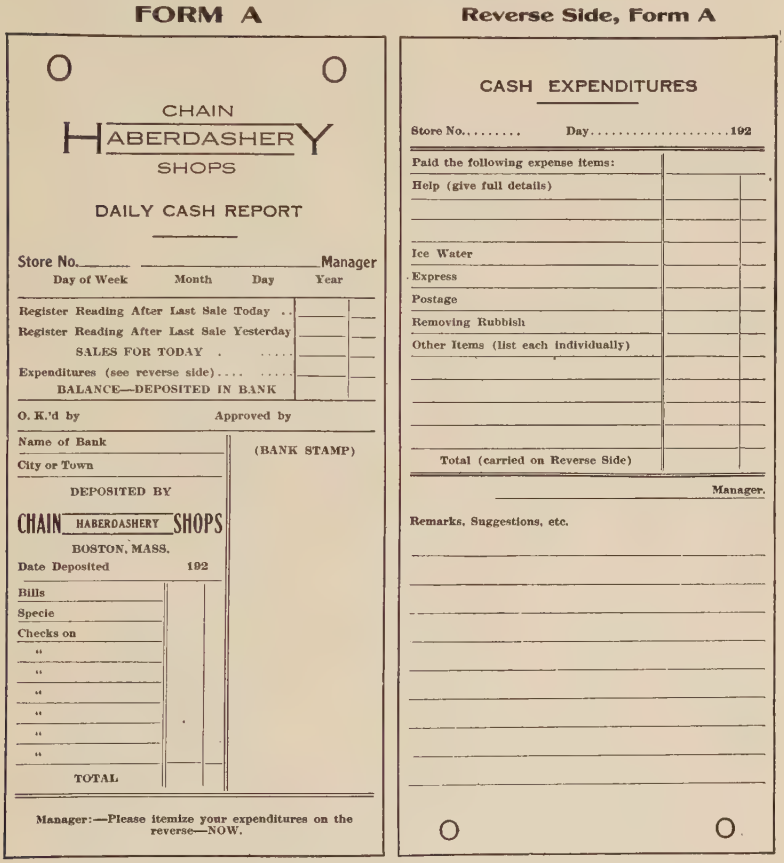
The United Shirt Shops started out in Johnstown, Pa., as the United Dollar Shirt Shops. This was in 1916. The rapidly advancing prices caused by the war made it advisable to change the name to the United Shirt Shops.

The rapid growth in this field was due to an unquestioned need for better methods, better stuffs, fairer values, and new merchandising ideas. Furthermore, haberdashery seemed to be particularly fitted to the economies which it is possible to effect by applying chain methods of purchasing and accounting.

Jacob Kagan and A. Fred Podren have described the method they followed in installing an accounting system for a chain of retail men's wear shops. Where the chain is too small to maintain a warehouse, as most of them still are, goods are sent to the stores with memorandum of goods shipped, but with no prices. The manufacturer sends the office a duplicate of the memorandum containing, however, the cost prices. The store manager signs a receipt and forwards it to headquarters. To avoid delay, the central office, as soon as it receives notification of shipment from the manufacturer, sends invoices to the stores of the goods at retail prices, and these invoices arrive in advance of the goods.

Cash received for goods sold is rung up on the cash register, and cumulative record of sales is thus kept. Every evening, the cash register readings are put on the daily cash report, the difference between the previous reading and the one for the

day in question forming the gross sales for the day. The store manager deposits all cash at the bank and the bank teller stamps his report in the space provided (see Fig. 69).



FORM A

CHAIN HABERDASHERY SHOPS

DAILY CASH REPORT

Store No. _____ _____ Manager

Day of Week | Month | Day | Year

Register Reading After Last Sale Today ..
Register Reading After Last Sale Yesterday
SALES FOR TODAY .
Expenditures (see reverse side) ....
BALANCE—DEPOSITED IN BANK

O. K.'d by Approved by

Name of Bank
City or Town
(BANK STAMP)

DEPOSITED BY
CHAIN HABERDASHERY SHOPS
BOSTON, MASS.
Date Deposited 192

Bills
Specie
Checks on
"
"
"
"
"
"
TOTAL

Manager:—Please itemize your expenditures on the reverse—NOW.

Reverse Side, Form A

CASH EXPENDITURES

Store No..... Day.....192

Paid the following expense items:
Help (give full details)
Ice Water
Express
Postage
Removing Rubbish
Other Items (list each individually)
Total (carried on Reverse Side)

Manager.

Remarks, Suggestions, etc.

FIG. 69.—Form of daily cash report used in haberdashery chain.

On the reverse side of the form is a place for all cash expenditures. If paid at the store, an amount must be deducted from deposits at the bank, but the better way is to have them paid by check from the central office.

Figure 70 shows a simple form of inventory for use in small haberdashery chains. Columns are provided for different-priced articles in the store. The quantity only is placed in the price

column. Total inventory can quickly be found by multiplying and adding totals.

Form B

Store No..... Address .....
Date ..... Time..... Register Reading.....
Manager .....
Inventory taken by .....

CHAIN HABERDASHERY SHOPS
INVENTORY

DO NOT SIGN this Stock Sheet unless you are Sure it is ACCURATE

	69	75	98
	105	8	97
	31	9	2
	71	16	19
	39	105	77
	209	73	87
	455	211	282
	95	25	36
	313	158	276

TOTAL—OVER

Reverse Side, Form B

BOOK INVENTORY CHARGES		INVENTORY	BOOK INVENTORY CREDITS	
Inventory Beginning		Store No.	Sales to Date	
Shipments		Address	Reductions	
Journal Charges (*Transfers, etc.*)		Manager	Special Sale Reductions	
Advances		Taken By	Journal Credits (*Transfers, etc.*)	
Sundries		Date—From to	Sundries	
		Figured By		
		Physical Inventory		
		Book Inventory		
		Over (black ink)		
		Short (red ink)		
		BOOK INVENTORY		
		Summary Charges		
		Summary Credits		
		Balance		
		Book Inventory		

FIG. 70.—Form of inventory in haberdashery chain.

This way of taking stock, according to the *Haberdasher*, is quick, and supplies all information in which the accounting

department is interested. This department (accounting) is interested only in the amount of merchandise represented in dollars and cents. Its lookout is not as to the kind of merchandise in the stores.

The reverse side of the inventory form contains space for general and special information, and for book inventory charges.

Each store manager is supposed to keep a store ledger, in which he charges himself for goods received and credits himself for cash turned in. All his entries are made at retail prices. In times of rapid price changes, there will be entries for mark-ups and mark-downs. Where goods are frequently changed from store to store, there should be space for transfers.

The above system is exceedingly simple, and is not recommended for any but small chains which cannot afford the overhead expense necessary to install a more complex accounting system. This method lays the responsibility for watching the particular items in stock on the store manager himself as checked up by the district superintendent. In more complete systems, inventories contain detailed account of all items in stock.

In the men's furnishing shop, as well as in the hat store and the shoe store, the element of salesmanship enters. Service is far more important than it is in the drug store, the grocery store, or the five-and-ten-cent store. But the sale is complicated whenever a choice is to be made by the customer, and where the attitude of the clerk may mean a large or a small sale. A good haberdashery salesman will build a collar sale into a shirt sale. The higher the type of salesmanship required the more difficult it is to secure adequate control in a chain. Thus, the problem of the personnel is even more important in stores dealing in shopping lines than it is in those handling convenience goods only.

Hats.—Chain stores in the hat industry have existed for 15 years, and in that time have expanded slowly, and not with the remarkable activity characteristic of the chain haberdasheries. The following list shows the leading retail chain hatters dealing in headgear alone:

	Stores		Stores
Sarnoff-Irving	52	Long's Hat Stores	23
B. H. Kaufman	50	Truly Warner	21
Wormser Hat Stores	36	Kenton Hats	14
Snyder's, Inc	25	Young's Hat Stores	11

In addition to the above list, there are several local chains. There are also many general chain store organizations which carry hats, such as Browning, King & Company, the Menter stores, etc.

A chain hat store has to contend with the desire of the average customer to have a distinctive hat, while it must be the policy of the chain to furnish a standard hat. This explains the tendency of the chain hat stores to hold to the cheaper grades. The large hat manufacturers ordinarily give their agencies to independent hatters.

Clothing.—The clothing field may be divided broadly into apparel for men and for women. In the men's clothing field, there are such well-known concerns as the Browning, King & Company, which manufactures only for its own chain of 28 stores. Some of the leaders in the field follow:

	Location	Number of stores
Scotch Woolen Mills	Davenport, Iowa	117
Gateley's Credit Clothing Company	St. Louis, Mo.	115
Julian Goldman Stores	New York City	56
Farley Clothing Stores	New York City	85
Menter Company	New York City	42
E. F. Bailey	Des Moines, Iowa	30
Besse System	.....	27
Levey & Nathan, Inc	New York City	12
Ritchie & Cornell	New York City	11
Scotch Woolen Mills	Springfield, Ill.	10
Raab Brothers	Cincinnati, Ohio	10
George Tailer Parlors	New York City	7
Benoit System	Malden, Mass.	7
Capper & Capper	Chicago, Ill.	5
Surprise Stores	New York City	5
Plymouth Clothing Company	St. Joseph, Mo.	4
Rogers Peet Company	New York City	5
Liberman Brothers	New York City	

There are also a number of chains specializing in women's clothing, such as the Bedell Company of New York, with a

chain of 17 retail stores, or Arthur L. Braus of New York, with 19 stores. The Belmont Stores Corporation operates a chain of 14 women's wear shops, and pays its store managers a flat commission of 40 per cent of the net profits and a drawing account, according to the *Retail Ledger*.

The New York Waist Company, which operates a chain of 74 units, decided to change its name to the New York Apparel Stores, to make the name better suited to the new lines which the management had found it advisable to add.

The National Hosiery Stores and the Gotham Hosiery Company operate chains of hosiery stores on a successful basis.

In recent years a number of millinery chains have been started with from three to five links.

In the corset field, the W. H. Gossard Company, of Chicago, Ill., operates three stores, Goodwin, New York, six stores, and the Sadas Corset Shops of New York, three stores.

Clawson & Wilson, of New York, has a chain of three fur shops.

Shoes.—The retailing of shoes has offered real opportunities for chain organization, and especially to the manufacturers of shoes, to start retail chains under their supervision. The number of small chains is legion, and there is a comparatively large number of moderate-sized chains.

In addition to shoe stores proper, there are several chains of shoe repairing shops, such as Klein's Rapid Shoe Repair Company, in New York. There are also some shoe-shining chains.

The great problem in merchandising shoes has always been securing turnover in all lines. There is a choice of two evils, either to prune stock to bare necessities and lose customers, or to accept a reduced turnover. One small shoe chain has found its solution in reducing the time of selling a shoe to eight minutes per customer. If the customer cannot make up his mind in that length of time, he is politely advised to look somewhere else. This shoe chain has adopted a form of self-service, allowing the customer to put on the shoes and fit himself. In this way, one clerk can handle several customers at the same time. In spite of this innovation, the stores are making money and securing a turnover of ten times annually, more than twice what the average chain shoe store expects to obtain.

The following list tabulates some of the better known shoe chains, listed alphabetically:

	Location	Number of stores
Adler Shoe Company	New York City	11
C. H. Baker Shoe Company	San Francisco, Cal.	
Beck Hazzard Stores, Inc	New York City	28
I. Blyn & Sons	New York City	11
Bouve-Sterling	Boston, Mass.	
E. W. Burt & Company	East Lynn, Mass.	12
Edwin Clapp & Son		
W. L. Douglas Shoe Company	Brocton, Mass.	107
Emerson Shoe Company	New York City	10
Feltman & Curme Shoe Stores Company	Chicago, Ill.	12
Florsheim Shoe Company	Chicago, Ill.	
French, Shriner & Urner	New York City	6
Ground Gripper Shoe Company		4
Hanan & Sons		20
Hanover Shoe Company	New York City	52
George E. Keith (Walkover)		
G. R. Kinney Company, Inc	New York City	145
London Shoe Company		5
R. H. Long (Waldorf)		
D. Loventhals Sons	New York City	6
I. Miller & Sons	New York City	4
O'Connor & Goldberg	Chicago, Ill.	8
Regal Shoe Company		56
Rice & Hutchins	New York City	12
Rival Shoe Company	New York City	8
Sorosis Shoe Company	Brooklyn, N. Y.	30
S. B. Thing, Inc	Boston, Mass.	12
Wildfeuer Brothers	New York City	9
John Ward, Inc	New York City	8

CHAPTER XXVI

OTHER CHAIN FIELDS

The development of chain stores has followed the lines of least resistance. The first fields to be taken up and exploited were those devoted to the retailing of necessities and of products which everyone uses constantly. The grocery chain, the drug chain, the five-and-ten-cent store chain, and the clothing and apparel chains are in this class.

But with the development of chain stores, with the better functioning of method, and the cumulative force of a successful enterprise, the chain store idea has grown in two directions:

1. It has been extended to the retailing of articles which cannot strictly be called necessities, but which many people find necessary to their comfort. In this class come the tobacco and confectionery chains, which are founded on habit, and the optical chain, which is based on defective vision. There have been long-established chains in these fields, but, except for the United Cigar Stores Company, their growth has been slow compared with that of the grocery and five-and-ten-cent store chains.

2. It has been extended to the retailing of products which necessitate special service. To this class belong the restaurant chains, where food has to be prepared and served. It also includes chains of hotels, theaters, and places of amusement, which have successfully applied the principles of chain operation to their special problems.

The Retail Tobacco Chains.—Some of the most efficient and profitable methods of chain operation have been developed in the tobacco field. The United Cigar Stores represents a case where a man saw opportunity and seized it. When George J. Whelan decided that his eight stores in Syracuse, N. Y., were not large enough to satisfy his ambition, and came to New York City, a

new era was opened in chain store development as well as in retail tobacco merchandising.

The independent cigar stores had been losing ground steadily to the drug stores, the hotels, and the news stands, all of which carried cigars and tobacco. The cigar store Indian stood for all that was antiquated in retail merchandising. The United Cigar Stores Company was formed in 1900, and the principles which it adopted at that time are still in force. Reducing the location of his stores to a science, Mr. Whelan went a step further, and, in the days when personnel administration was a name without meaning, he drilled his men with the principal

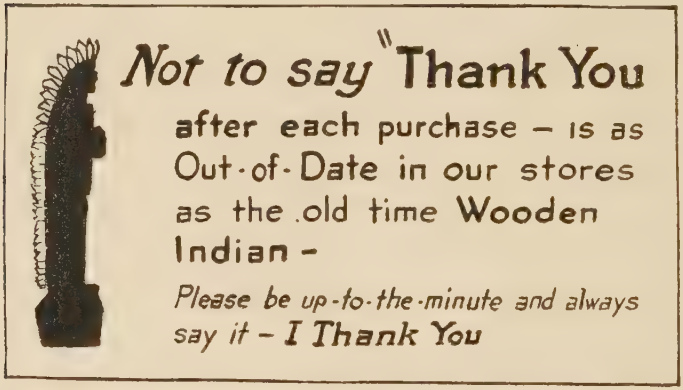

Not to say "Thank You
after each purchase – is as
Out-of-Date in our stores
as the old time Wooden
Indian –
Please be up-to-the-minute and always
say it – I Thank You

Fig. 71.—Example of the courtesy policy followed by the United Cigar Stores Company. (*Retail Ledger.*)

idea of having them render service to customers. He standardized merchandise, standardized the appearance of his stores, standardized his methods of accounting, and, most important of all, succeeded in getting his clerks interested.

At the present time, the United Cigar Stores Company operates 1,500 stores and 700 agencies. Several small chains were absorbed during the process of development, but, on the whole, the progress has been systematic. Large cities were chosen first, in which the per capita consumption of tobacco was highest. Then smaller centers of population were covered.

As fast as statistics show that a community is able to support a United Cigar Store, one is established there.

From the outset, the chain has insisted upon a policy of courtesy to the customer (see Fig. 71). The company is constantly experimenting with methods of extending courtesy. For example, various methods of furnishing matches were tried. The present rule is to hand them to the customer when he asks for them, but not to throw or slide them at him. In the Greater New York territory the plan was tried of giving a package of matches with every purchase, but it was concluded that the additional expense was not warranted by results, and did not receive the appreciation of customers. The customer did not notice the gift because it accompanied the purchase.

According to John Blakely, assistant vice-president (*Retail Ledger*), the company finds that, even where a customer declines matches, the thoughtfulness of the salesman in bringing matches to his notice is appreciated as a courtesy, while customers who accept matches are doubly appreciative because the extra mental operation brought about by the salesman's question prevents the gift from going unnoticed.

A printed list has been compiled of greetings to customers, ways of showing merchandise, methods of counter and window display, and ways of selling goods. Copies of this are distributed to all stores.

Great stress is laid on the performance of gratuitous services which build future goodwill, such as making change and selling postage stamps.

There is but one other important company in the tobacco retailing field, namely, the Schulte Retail Stores Corporation. In the past few years this company has expanded rapidly. In 1918, with 113 stores, the company did a business of $4,000,000. From the same stores, in 1919, the company made sales of $6,000,000, in addition to $2,000,000 from 51 stores opened during the year, or a total of $8,000,000, or twice the amount taken in during the previous year. In 1923, with 255 stores, the company did a gross business of $25,948,189. At that time it had also obtained control of the American business of A. Dunhill of London, makers of pipes, and had purchased Park &

Tilford, Inc. Increase in the number of stores and the volume of sales from 1916 on, follows:

	Number of stores	Volume of gross sales
1916	66	$ 2,737,551
1917	93	4,195,534
1918	113	5,449,477
1919	157	9,679,553
1920	196	16,299,163
1921	222	20,699,159
1922	239	23,765,364
1923	255	25,948,189
1924	290	

The General Cigar Company has 77 stores, 25 of them in Chicago. In nearly all the large cities of the country there are local chains with branches running from 3 to 20.

In starting a tobacco chain, the location of the member stores is undoubtedly the most important consideration. Men will not go out of their way to buy standard brands which can be procured anywhere at a standard price—hence, the corner-location policy of the United Cigar Stores Company.

The second requisite for success is an exceedingly rapid turnover. Once in 30 days should serve as an average. This is necessary in retailing products on such a narrow margin of profit. The tobacco field has been particularly subject to cut-price wars in the past, but, as has been pointed out elsewhere, this policy rarely brings any actual advantage to the firms concerned.

Candy, Confectionery, Etc.—Some fields seem preeminently suited for manufacturers' chains, and the candy field is one of these. A Huyler store on one corner will not materially affect the sales of Huyler candy in an agency on the next corner. Thus, the problem of damaging agency sales is not serious. In the second place, a chain of candy stores offers a steady outlet for the company's products which, from their nature, must be disposed of within a comparatively short time.

As a matter of fact, candy is bought mostly by men and wherever they happen to be at the moment. Therefore, location plays an essential part in the success of the candy chain just as in the tobacco chain. The window display is important. Windows have to be changed frequently because of the perishability of the product. Many candy chains arrange new displays daily, except for some special seasonal display, which may remain a week. The message which the candy stores are constantly trying to emphasize is the freshness and the quality of their products. In the Loft stores, for example, candy is frequently displayed sliced across the center to give a further effect of freshness.

Frequently a number of chain candy stores are located close to each other and there is little choice between the locations. Assuming that the price appeal is approximately the same, recourse must be had to quality and service. Attractive window displays and local advertising will create an atmosphere of quality. Goodwill may be secured by good service. A candy store cannot sell too cheaply, or the quality will be suspected.

The principal chains in the candy field are as follows:

Huyler's	60	
Happiness Candy Stores	25	
Mirror	20	
Loft, Inc	23	
Schrafft's	17	
Page & Shaw	17	(10 additional stores in Canada and abroad)

In addition, there are many other chains, too numerous to mention, including Miller Brothers, the Goody Shops, Mary Elizabeth, Martha Washington, etc.

Several chains operate lunch counters or serve light lunches at tables in some of their stores. Schrafft's and Huyler's are noteworthy examples. This service is only practicable in stores in or near shopping or business centers. Page & Shaw, in addition to manufacturing their own candy, also operate a chocolate factory and a box factory.

Tobacco and candy products are fairly limited in range compared with grocery and drug chains, but the Nedick's Orange Juice Company is even more specialized. Through 55

stores in and around New York it sells orange drink and nothing else in the way of a beverage. Other things have been tried, but have not proved satisfactory. Although sales fall off in the winter, they do not care to put in hot drinks. As a side line, candy and other miscellaneous edibles are sold.

The striking fact about the conduct of the stores is that the stores are open to the street. They are display and store in one. A uniform finish in white makes them easy to find. The fact that they are on the street, that there is no door to open, no steps to ascend or descend, has a strong selling appeal.

Bakeries.—The bakery chain is in many respects like the candy chain. That is, it depends on location for its business and, the product being perishable, the problem of leftover goods becomes extremely important. Owing to the necessity of supplying fresh products to the public, the bakery chain must do its own manufacturing, in many cases on the premises.

The Federal System of Bakeries of America, with approximately 400 stores, is the largest chain in the bakery field. There are several small local chains of a few units each. The Federal Bakeries have chosen desirable city locations where there is a great deal of traffic, and have capitalized these situations with attractive window displays and carefully conducted merchandising campaigns. By allowing the managers wide scope as to amount and size of bakings, choice of lines of goods to sell, and other local matters, the major difficulties have been overcome. Almost every store is a complete manufacturing unit. The home office at Davenport, Iowa, supplies material for window displays, merchandising ideas, formulas, and necessary sales training for managers. The majority of the managers are trained at the company's own school.

The bakery field is a difficult one, since the bakery has to contend constantly with the chain groceries, which also retail baked goods. The success of the Federal chain, however, shows that it is possible to surmount these difficulties by proper attention to chain store principles.

Restaurants.—In the restaurant field, the service problem is accentuated. The restaurant is the dividing line between the two types of chains. The restaurant field itself is sharply divided into the service and the self-service type. At present,

the bulk of the restaurant chains are of the latter type, approximating more nearly the original chain idea of a series of stores selling necessities to a large number of people, the sales being based on low price and convenient location.

In the service restaurants, Childs with more than a hundred units stands far in the lead. But it is a service chain conducted according to all the rules of chain store practice. It insists on suitable locations, serves standard low-priced food, stresses the display features, etc. This is directly contrary to the policy pursued by independent restaurants, where a reputation for fine cooking or excellent service will often draw customers out of their ways.

The self-service lunch rooms are always located on traffic avenues. They will be found near railroad stations to catch early and late traffic, and in the business districts to catch business people at noon. The John R. Thompson Company in Chicago and the Waldorf Lunch System, Inc., in Boston are the largest in the field. There are many local and semi-local chains with from three to twenty branches.

The Waldorf System is typical of the self-service restaurant chain. It operates over 100 restaurants in over 30 cities. The first Waldorf Lunch was founded as late as 1904, in Springfield, Mass., with an initial investment of only $1,800. The first Waldorf Lunch in Boston was started in 1906. The chain's great growth dates from 1919, when the Waldorf System, with 38 stores of its own, absorbed the Kinney & Woodward chain having 14 stores, and the Baldwin chain having seven stores, making a total of 59. In less than two years it added 30 more links, 20 of them from the absorption of the 11 stores of the Porter Capitol System, and 9 from the Waldorf Company of Providence, R. I. In 1924 there were over 112 links.

The company has applied the policy of standardization to the retailing of food. The average amount of every portion is carefully calculated. For example, when a customer orders hash, he always gets the same amount. Each serving of hash has been carefully measured and done up in waxed paper before being sent to the member stores. All baking is done in the central commissary which operates 24 hours a day. The average meal during 1920 was 30 cents and the company made less than 2

cents profit on each meal. But during this period the company served 36,000,000 meals, and from this enormous turnover, it was possible to make substantial profits.

Hotels.—The hotel chain is the largest enterprise which has yet been attempted along chain store principles. For example, the Hotel Pennsylvania, at New York, the largest hotel in the world, is a link in the Statler chain. The Bowman chain operates many hotels in the country. The United Hotels Company of America operates 18 hotels in the United States and Canada. According to the *Hotel Record*, there are about 100 so-called hotel chain systems in the United States, operating as many as three or four hotels under the same management.

Most of the hotel systems have a common accounting and purchasing system. The manager of each hotel, as is natural, exercises great authority in the hiring of help, ordering of supplies, adjustment of complaints, etc. But outside of material comfort, the hotel chain must furnish one indispensable element, which is service. How important service is in the mere selling of commodities has already been emphasized. But much of the hotel sales appeal is based on service, telephone, elevator, mail, waiter, almost everything the guest may desire. And the excellence of the service counts a great deal. Location, in other words, is not the entire story. A guest will have his favorite hotel, of which he will be a steady patron as long as the service satisfies him. The management, therefore, tries to give uniform service in the entire chain, so that a guest going to another city will patronize the hotel owned by the same chain.

The Statler management will accept no excuse for failure to carry out policies as explained in the Statler Service Codes. Discourtesy is not allowed under any circumstances, even though the guest be unreasonable. For example, the following quotation is taken from the directions to front-office clerks:

> Mail clerks and key clerks who recognize people and remember their names are more valuable to us than others who do not.
>
> You know that what the guest wants (and is entitled to) is a helpful and interested, as well as a courteous, service. You are not through with any transaction until the guest is satisfied; or, if you cannot satisfy him, until you have called your superior and the matter is out of your hands.

The Hotels Statler have considered it worth the expense to advertise their policies nationally as a means of acquainting the public with them. It is another case of the chain organization's ability to pick out the fundamental basis of competition and use it as a sales appeal.

Miscellaneous.—The conception of a chain organization has spread also into widely divergent fields. But the principles of operation remain in all cases the same, although the stress may be laid on a different phase of the problem. There is the theater chain—Keith and Shubert, and others. Here the success of the company depends upon the character of the amusements shown. Loew's Inc. now operates 117 theaters. There are numerous moving picture chains.

There are two successful barber shop chains in New York where the chief problems are labor and location. There is a successful optical chain with 28 stores. There are chains of stores dealing in automobile accessories.

In starting a chain of enterprises of any sort the fundamental question is whether it is possible to apply the chain store principles as laid down in this volume. There is great opportunity existing, not only in old fields but in new and yet untouched fields. To capitalize these opportunities, it is necessary to heed carefully the methods and practices of others who have already been successful. It has been the purpose of this book to set forth, in so far as possible, the primary rules to be observed in conducting any chain enterprise as illustrated by the examples of those who have been most successful.

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